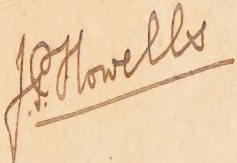
OUTLINE OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

J. C. NESFIELD



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OUTLINE OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

(REVISED EDITION)

IN FIVE PARTS

I.—NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS.
II.—VERBS, THEIR INFLECTIONS AND USES.
III.—PARSING AND SYNTAX.
IV.—ANALYSIS, CONVERSION, AND SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES: SEQUENCE OF TENSES.
V.—ANALYSIS AND DERIVATION OF WORDS: SOUNDS AND SPELLINGS.

BY

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PREFACE TO REVISED EDITION

THIS Revised Edition of *Outline of English Grammar* differs from the first edition in the following particulars:—

(1) A new chapter has been added on the "Synthesis of Sentences,"—a useful kind of practice in English composition, for which questions are now sometimes set in the Oxford and Cambridge Locals and other public examinations.

(2) Every part of the original edition has been scrutinised, and wherever some further elucidation seemed to be needed, a new sentence or a new paragraph has been inserted.

(3) The questions given as "Exercises" in the body or at the close of each chapter have been examined and revised, so as to make sure that they are quite up to date and meet present wants.

(4) The book has been printed in larger type than that used in printing the first edition.

It must be added, however, that the changes or additions now introduced are neither many nor serious, and that the book remains very much what it was. In compiling the original edition, which was first printed in 1900 and has gone through a great many reprints since, I followed the system of English grammar which had been generally accepted and is still accepted by the nation,—the system about which all the best authorities are agreed,—Sweet,

Skeat, Mason, Abbott, Bain, and many more. I still adhere to this system and believe it to be the only sound system that has ever been worked out for the study of our mother-tongue. I have seen no necessity to adopt,—in fact I have seen much reason to avoid,—the innovations recommended by the "Joint Committee of Grammatical Terminology," which appointed itself early in the year 1909 to draw up a scheme for the "simplification and unification of the terminologies and classifications employed in the grammars of different languages," and issued its report in December 1910. The innovations in English grammar, entailed by this alleged process of "simplification and unification," were not adopted unanimously by the Committee itself, nor have they ever been endorsed by the English Association. Among the alterations proposed there are only three to which any importance need be attached. As these have been stated and discussed in footnotes appended to §§ 10, 31, 34, 50, 91, and 131 of the Revised Edition of this book, no further reference need be made to them in this preface. The student or teacher, having both sides of the question thus placed before him, can form his own opinion as to which side is most worthy of adoption. I may add, however, that the system propounded by the Committee was emphatically condemned by the late Professor Skeat, who held that far from "simplifying" the study of English grammar it had created difficulties which did not before exist.

J. C. NESFIELD.

EALING, W., 1917.

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PART I.—NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS.

CHAPTER I.—HOW TO TELL THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

1. How to tell the Parts of Speech.—To find out the "Part of Speech" to which a word belongs, or in which it is used in any given example, ask yourself, "*What kind of work* does the word *do* in the sentence before me? What part does it play in helping to make the sentence?"

(1) If a word *gives a name* to some individual person or thing or to some kind of person or thing, the word is a **Noun**:—

James saw an *apple* fall to the *ground*.

Here "*James*" is the name of some person. "*Apple*" is the name of a kind of fruit. "*Ground*" is a name given to the piece of earth on which the apple fell. So *James*, *apple*, and *ground* are all nouns.

"Noun" and "name" mean the same thing. "Noun" is of Latin origin (*nomen*). "Name" is of Anglo-Saxon origin (*nama*).

(2) If a word *refers* to some person or thing *without giving a name* to the person or thing referred to, the word is a **Pronoun**. (If it gives a *name* to some person or thing, it is of course a Noun, not a Pronoun. Herein lies

the essential difference between the one part of speech and the other.)

You and *he* came here a week before *me*.

Here "*you*" refers to the person spoken to without naming him; "*he*" refers to some person spoken of, whose name has been mentioned in a previous sentence; "*me*" refers to the person speaking without naming him. So all these words are pronouns.

The word "*pronoun*" means "for (Latin *pro*) a noun"; *i.e. a word used instead of a noun*, or as a substitute for a noun.

(3) If a word *adds* to the meaning of a noun so as to show more clearly what person or thing the noun is meant to stand for, the word is an **Adjective**:—

This house. A *noble* character. A *white* brick.

The word "*this*" points out the house to which the writer or speaker alludes. The word "*noble*" shows what sort of character is meant. The word "*white*" describes one quality of the brick, namely, its colour. So all these words are adjectives. Each of them *qualifies* (*i.e.* adds something to the meaning of) the noun to which it is attached.

The word "*adjective*" (Latin *adjectivum*) implies addition: a word is added to a noun or pronoun in order to add to its meaning.

(4) If a word *says* something (*i.e.* makes some statement, or expresses some command, or asks some question) about a person or thing, the word is a **Verb**:—

The bird *has flown*. *Has* the bird *flown*? *Go* away.

In the first of these sentences "*has flown*" makes a statement about the bird. In the second it asks a question about it. "Has flown" is therefore a verb in either case. In the third sentence "*go*" expresses a command; therefore it is a verb.

The word "*verb*" is from Latin *verbum*, which means literally "word." It is called *the word* by way of distinction, because it is the most important kind of word in human speech.

(5) If a word expresses some *relation* between two

persons or things [1] (*i.e.* shows what the one *has to do* with the other), the word is a **Preposition** :—

A bird *in* the hand.

Here the word "*in*" shows what the hand has to do with the bird, or the bird with the hand. The bird might be *above* the hand, or *under* the hand, or *away from* the hand, or somewhere *near* the hand, or *in* the hand. The noun or pronoun before which the preposition is placed is said to be its **Object.**

The word "*preposition*" means "placed before" (Latin *prae-* before, and *positus*, placed); *i.e.* placed before the noun or pronoun that is called its Object.

(6) If a word *joins* one sentence to another so as to make a larger sentence, or if it *joins* one part of speech to another of the same or a similar kind, the word is a **Conjunction** :—

(*a*) The thief was caught, *but* the money was lost.
(*b*) James *and* I went out for a walk.

In (*a*) the second sentence (*the money was lost*) is joined to the first (*the thief was caught*) by the word *but*. In (*b*) the pronoun "*I*" is joined to the noun "*James*" by the conjunction *and*.

The word "*conjunction*" (from Latin *con* and *jung*-ere, *junction*-em) means the act of joining together or the thing that joins.

(7) If a word *adds* to the meaning of some verb, adjective, preposition, or conjunction, the word is an **Adverb** :—

(*a*) A snake moves *silently* in the grass.
(*b*) The air is *remarkably* cool.
(*c*) He swam *half* across the channel.
(*d*) He was despised, *merely* because he was poor.
(*e*) He walks *very* slowly.

In (*a*) the adverb "*silently*" qualifies (*i.e.* adds to the meaning of) the verb "moves." In (*b*) "*remarkably*" qualifies the adjective "cool." In (*c*) "*half*" qualifies the preposition

[1] It is not correct to say that "a Preposition is a word used with a noun or pronoun to show its relation to some other word in the sentence." According to this definition "A bird in the hand" does not mean that a bird is in the hand, but that the noun "bird" is in the noun "hand." The relation expressed by a Preposition is not between words, but between the things denoted by words.

"across." In (*d*) "*merely*" qualifies the conjunction "because." In (*e*) "*very*" qualifies the adverb "slowly."

"*Ad-verb*" means "added to a verb" (Lat. *ad verbum*). This is the main work of adverbs; but they are now used to qualify not only verbs, but adjectives, prepositions, conjunctions, and other adverbs,—in fact, any part of speech except a noun or pronoun.

2. The Same Word in different Parts of Speech.—Until we see a word in a sentence, we cannot say what kind of work it *does* in the sentence; and until we know this, we are often unable to say to what part of speech it belongs; for the same word may do one kind of work in one sentence, and another in another. The *form* that a word may have is often no guide at all; but the *work* that a word does is an unfailing guide. Take the following examples:—

(*a*) The *man* has come. *Man* the lifeboat.

Here the first "man" is a noun, because it gives a *name* to a kind of animal or living thing. The second is a verb, because it *says* something to some one, *i.e.* it expresses an order.

(*b*) Bring me some *water*. Look at that *water* bird.

Here the first "water" is a noun, because it gives a *name* to a certain kind of thing. The second is an adjective, or rather a noun used as an adjective, because it *adds* to the meaning of the noun "bird" by showing what kind of bird is meant.

(*c*) He hopes *for* pardon; *for* he knew no better.

Here the first "for" is a preposition, because it shows the *relation* between the act expressed by *pardon* and the feeling expressed by *hope*. The second is a conjunction, because it *joins* the sentence "he knew no better" to the sentence "he hopes for pardon."

(*d*) This is a *long* journey; we have *long* been travelling; and I *long* for rest.

Here the first "long" is an adjective, because it *qualifies* the noun "journey." The second is an adverb, because it *qualifies* the verb "have been travelling." The third is a verb, because it *says* something about the person denoted by "I."

3. **The Parts of Speech defined.**—From the account that has now been given, the parts of speech may be defined thus :—

(1) A **noun** is a word used for *naming* some person or thing.

(2) A **pronoun** is a word used *instead of* a noun or noun-equivalent.

(3) An **adjective** is a word used for *qualifying* a noun or pronoun.

(4) A **verb** is a word used for *saying* something about a person or thing (such as making a statement, asking a question, or giving an order).

(5) A **preposition** is a word used for showing what one person or thing *has to do* with another person or thing.

(6) A **conjunction** is a word used for *joining* one sentence to another sentence, or one word to another word of the same or similar part of speech.

(7) An **adverb** is a word used for *qualifying* any kind of word except a noun or pronoun.

4. **Interjection.**—To the seven parts of speech already named one more must be added to make the list complete, viz. the Interjection. So there are altogether eight parts of speech.

An interjection is unlike all the rest, because it *does* nothing in the sentence, *i.e.* it does not help to make the sentence as the other seven do. If it happens to occur in the middle of a sentence, it is not connected with any word either before or after. Sometimes it does not occur in any sentence, but stands quite alone.

Oh ! ah ! pooh ! alas ! fie !

These are merely exclamatory sounds intended to express some feeling of the mind. The word "*interjection*" (Latin *inter*, "amongst," and *jactus*, "thrown") means a word or sound "thrown into" a sentence, but forming no part of its construction, *i.e.* not contributing to the materials of which the sentence is built.

My son, *alas* ! is dangerously ill.

If we cut out the word "*alas*," what remains makes quite as perfect a sentence as the original. Every other word *does* something to some other word or words. Thus *my* qualifies the noun *son*; the noun *son* is the subject of the verb *is*; *is* is the verb of the sentence, having *son* for its subject; *dangerously* is an adverb qualifying the adjective *ill*; *ill* goes with the verb *is*, and completes what the verb left unsaid. But the word *alas* goes with nothing, and can be cut out without altering or damaging the structure of the sentence.

4*a*. **Inflexion or Change of Form.**—Inflexion is a variation in the form of a word to mark a variation in its use. Among the eight Parts of Speech, there are three, viz. Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections, that are not subject to inflexion or change of form. Adjectives have no inflexion except in the plurals *these* and *those* and in forming the degrees of comparison. Adverbs have no inflexion except in forming degrees of comparison. So the only Parts of Speech that are frequently subject to inflexion or change of form are Nouns, Pronouns, and Verbs.

CHAPTER II.—FORMS AND KINDS OF NOUNS.

SECTION 1.—NUMBER.

5. **Singular and Plural.**—When you speak of **one** thing at a time, the noun that you use is in the **Singular** number; as "a cow."

When you speak of **more than one** thing at a time, the noun that you use is in the **Plural** number; as "cows."

6. **How Plurals are formed.**—The main rules are—

(i.) Add *s* to the Singular. This is the general rule.

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Cow	cows	Town	towns
Boy	boys	Star	stars
Bird	birds	Flea	fleas

(ii.) Add *es* to the Singular, if you find that you cannot pronounce the *s* without the help of *e* :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Glass	glass-es	Brush	brush-es
Box	box-es	Branch	branch-es
Kiss	kiss-es	Porch	porch-es

Note.—If the Singular ends with a silent *e*, the *e* is dropped before the *es* of the Plural :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
House	hous-es	Size	siz-es
Page	pag-es	Bridge	bridg-es
Face	fac-es	Nose	nos-es
Cause	caus-es	Horse	hors-es

(iii.) If the Singular ends in *y*, and the *y* is preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *ies* :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Fly	flies	Army	armies
Cry	cries	Penny	pennies / pence
Duty	duties		

Note.—If the Singular ends in *ay*, *ey*, or *oy* (*i.e.* if the *y* is preceded by a vowel, and not by a consonant), simply add *s* and make no change in the *y* :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Day	days	Ray	rays
Boy	boys	Monkey	monkeys

(iv.) If the Singular ends in *f* or *fe*, change the *f* or *fe* into *ves* :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Wife	wives	Loaf	loaves
Wolf	wolves	Thief	thieves

Note.—But there are at least fourteen Singular nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, which form the Plural by simply adding *s* to the Singular. Three of these, however, viz. *staff*, *scarf*, and *wharf*, sometimes form the Plural in *ves*.

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Chief	chiefs	Proof	proofs
Roof	roofs	Strife	strifes
Hoof	hoofs	Fife	fifes

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Turf	turfs	Reef	reefs
Dwarf	dwarfs	Scarf	scarfs, scarves
Gulf	gulfs	Wharf	wharfs, wharves
Grief	griefs	Staff	staffs, staves

(v.) If the Singular ends in *o*, and the *o* is preceded by a consonant, add *es*, not *s*, to the Singular :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Cargo	cargoes	Volcano	volcanoes
Hero	heroes	Potato	potatoes
Buffalo	buffaloes	Echo	echoes
Motto	mottoes	Negro	negroes

Note 1.—The following are exceptions :—*grotto, grottos ; halo, halos ; memento, mementos ; proviso, provisos ; tiro, tiros ; piano, pianos ; canto, cantos ; solo, solos.* No reason can be given to justify this troublesome distinction.

Note 2.—If the *o* is preceded by a vowel, the Plural is formed by simply adding *s* to the singular, as :—*folio, folios ; cameo, cameos.*

(vi.) If the noun is a compound word, *i.e.* a word formed by the union of two or more words into one, change the Singular of the *principal* word into a Plural :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Court-martial	courts-martial	Maid-servant	maid-servants
Son-in-law	sons-in-law	Foot-man	foot-men
Step-son	step-sons	Hanger-on	hangers-on
Man-of-war	men-of-war	Maid-of-honour	maids-of-honour

Note 1.—Examples of double Plurals :—*man-servant, men-servants ; lord-justice, lords-justices ; Knight-Templar, Knights-Templars.*

Note 2.—In words like *spoonful*, compounded of *spoon* and *full*, the Plural is formed by simply adding *s* to the end of the word. The word, although it is a compound, is treated as if it were a single word ; as *spoonful, spoonfuls ; handful, handfuls.*

7. Exceptional Plurals.

(i.) There are eight nouns, that form the Plural by changing the inside vowel of the Singular :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Man	men	Goose	geese
Woman	women	Tooth	teeth
Foot	feet	Mouse	mice
Louse	lice	Dormouse	dormice

(ii.) There are four nouns, that make the Plural terminate in *en* or *ne* :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Ox	oxen	Child	children
Cow	kine (or cows)	Brother	brethren (or brothers)

(iii.) There are a few nouns that have the same form for the Plural as for the Singular :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Deer	deer	Trout	trout
Sheep	sheep	Cod	cod.
Fish	fish	Brace	brace
Swine	swine	Dozen	dozen
Grouse	grouse	Score	score
Salmon	salmon	Stone	stone (weight)

(iv.) Some nouns have no Singular :—

Annals	Gallows	Pincers	Victuals
Bellows	Statistics	Scissors	Tidings
Tongs	Suds	Shambles	News
Shears	Nuptials	Thanks	Means

In spite of the Plural form we say, "By *this* means." "*This* news is not true."

Note.—A noun like "earth" "sun," etc., has no Plural, because in nature there is only one earth and only one sun.

Further particulars regarding exceptional Plurals are given below in Chapter XXXIII. These can be studied later on.

Exercise 1.

In the following exercises—(1) *pick out all the nouns;* (2) *say whether each noun is Singular or Plural as it stands;* (3) *change every Plural into a Singular, and every Singular into a Plural :—*

1. There are many cities in England, many smaller towns, and an immense number of villages.

2. A cat and a dog are seldom good friends.

3. The earth turns round once in one day and one night.

4. When the cat is away, the mice play.

5. The branch of that tree has leaves of a bright green colour.

6. The cries of animals are many and various: a horse neighs; a dog barks; a cat mews; a swine or pig grunts; an elephant trumpets; an ass brays; an ox lows; a monkey chatters; a goose cackles; a boy laughs or weeps; a fish is silent.

7. If we stop in this wood, we shall be lost. So let us get back into the public road, before night comes on.

8. The wolf living in that forest killed many calves.

9. Some thieves broke into the house of my friend.

10. The stars are seen through the leaves and branches of that oak-tree.

11. He went out fishing for salmon, and caught two dozen and more in his net, besides some trout to the number of two or three score.

12. Sheep cannot run as fast as deer; and so the sheep were caught first by the wolves.

13. The cat has caught two mice and one rat to-day.

14. Oxen are of more value than deer to a farmer.

15. The feet of men are larger than those of women; but the teeth are about the same in size.

16 The sun's light is brighter than the moon's; but the moon's rays are not so hot as those of the sun.

17. Joseph had eleven brethren, who sold him as a slave to some merchants on their way to Egypt.

18. A valley is usually hotter than the top of a hill.

19. He is a big man, and weighs fourteen stone.

Section 2.—Gender.

8. **The Genders.**—A noun that denotes a male is of the **Masculine** gender; one that denotes a female is of the **Feminine** gender; one that denotes either sex is of the **Common** gender; one that denotes neither sex, that is, something without life, is of the **Neuter** gender.

So the genders of Nouns are four in number:—

1. *Masculine*—males.
2. *Feminine*—females.
3. *Common*—either sex.
4. *Neuter*—neither sex.

Note.—In Old English the gender of a noun was indicated by its *form*. In Modern English it has become entirely a matter of sex or the absence of sex. This is not gender in the grammatical sense of the term.

9. **Masculine and Feminine.**—These are distinguished in three different ways :—

1. *By a Change of Word.*

Masc.	*Fem.*	*Masc.*	*Fem.*
Bachelor	spinster, maid	Gander	goose
		Gentleman	lady
Boar	sow	Hart	roe, hind
Boy	girl		
Brother	sister	Horse	mare
Buck	doe	Husband	wife
Bull	cow	King	queen
Bullock, Steer	heifer	Lord	lady
		Man	woman
Cock	hen	Milter	spawner
Colt	filly	Nephew	niece
Dog	bitch, slut	Ram	ewe
		Sir	madam
Drake	duck	Sire	dam
Drone	bee	Sloven	slut
Earl	countess	Son	daughter
Father	mother	Stag	hind
Friar, Monk	nun	Uncle	aunt
		Viceroy	vicereine
Gaffer	gammer		

2. *By a Change of Ending.*

Masc.	*Fem.*	*Masc.*	*Fem.*
Abbot	abbess	Emperor	empress
Actor	actress	Founder	foundress
Adventurer	adventuress	Giant	giantess
Author	authoress	God	goddess
Conductor	conductress	Governor	governess
Duke	duchess	Heir	heiress

Masc.	*Fem.*	*Masc.*	*Fem.*
Host	hostess	Priest	priestess
Hunter	huntress	Prince	princess
Lad	lass	Prophet	prophetess
Lion	lioness	Shepherd	shepherdess
Manager	manageress	Songster	songstress
Marquis	marchioness	Seamster	seamstress
Master	mistress	Steward	stewardess
Mayor	mayoress	Tiger	tigress
Murderer	murderess	Traitor	traitress
Negro	negress	Viscount	viscountess
Ogre	ogress	Votary	votaress
Patron	patroness	Waiter	waitress
Poet	poetess		

Note.—In the word *laundress* we have an example of a feminine form, to which there is now no corresponding masculine.

Peculiar Changes of Ending.

Masc.	*Fem.*	*Masc.*	*Fem.*
Czar	Czarina	Sultan	sultana
Executor	executrix	Testator	testatrix
Fox	vixen	Widower	widow
Hero	heroine	Wizard	witch
Spinner	spinster		

3. *By placing a Word before or after.*

Masc.	*Fem.*	*Masc.*	*Fem.*
He-goat	she-goat	Bride-groom	bride
Land-lord	land-lady	Great-uncle	great-aunt
Man-servant	maid-servant	Pea-cock	pea-hen
Grand-father	grand-mother	Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow

Examples of Nouns in the Common gender.

Parent	Cousin	Deer	Monarch	Pig	Calf
Relation	Bird	Baby	Person	Sheep	Foal
Friend	Fowl	Infant	Pupil	Elephant	Student
Enemy	Child	Servant	Orphan	Camel	Teacher

Section 3.—Case.

10. Three Cases. — "Case" depends (1) upon the *change of ending* that a noun or pronoun incurs according

to the purpose for which it is used in a sentence; (2) if there is no change of ending, upon the *grammatical relation* in which the noun or pronoun stands to some other word in the same sentence.

There are three Cases in English—(1) the Nominative, (2) the Possessive, (3) the Objective.[1]

Pronoun.	*Noun.*
He, his, him.	Man, man's, man.

In some pronouns each of the three Cases has a distinct form, as in Nom. *he*, Poss. *his*, Obj. *him*. But in nouns the only Case distinguished by a change of form is the Possessive, as *man's*. In such words the form of the Objective is the same as that of the Nominative, and hence the difference between Nom. and Obj. depends solely upon grammatical relation.

11. Possessive. — This is formed by adding *'s* (called *a-pos-tro-phe s*) to the Nominative of Singular nouns, and to the Nominative of those Plurals which do not end in *s*:—

Singular—man's. *Plural*—men's.

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[1] In the report issued by the Terminological Committee of 1910 it is asserted that there are five cases, not merely three, in Modern English, viz. the Nominative, the Genitive, the Dative, the Accusative, and the Vocative. This statement, however, is not true.

The alleged Vocative case is a fiction pure and simple invented by the committee without authority to bring the system of English cases into a forced conformity with the system of Latin cases No such thing as a Vocative case was ever known in Old English, much less does any such case exist in Modern.

No difficulty is solved, but much difficulty is produced, by the attempt to revive the distinction between Accusative and Dative, which, though it existed in Old English, fell into disuse in Middle English, and was unknown in Modern. The word "Objective" covers the ground of both, and no difficulty is felt.

Nothing is gained by substituting the less appropriate term "Genitive" for the well-established term "Possessive."

The committee advise that "as far as possible the Latin names of cases should be used." It would be wiser to say that the Latin names of cases should be avoided rather than used to imply what is untrue and introduce a uniformity which never existed. The fact that Old English grammar resembled Latin in certain points is admitted, but this was not because English grammar was derived from or dependent on Latin, but because both belonged to the same family,—the Indo-Germanic.

If the Plural ends in *s*, as nearly all Plurals do, the Possessive is formed by simply adding the apostrophe :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
A cow's tail	cows' tails
My niece's book	my nieces' books
A thief's trick	thieves' tricks
A horse's foot	horses' feet
A lady's cloak	ladies' cloaks
Mistress's fan	mistresses' fans

12. **Nominative.**—A noun or pronoun is in the Nominative case, when it is the Subject of a verb, or when it is used for purposes of address. These are the two main rules ; other uses of the Nominative case will be shown hereafter.

(1) This *man* rides well . . . (*Subject of Verb.*)
(2) Leave me, my *son* . . . (*Nominative of Address.*)

In (1) the verb "rides" expresses the action of riding. Who performs this action ? The man. Therefore the noun "man" is in the Nominative case.

In (2) "son" is the person addressed. Therefore "son" is in the Nominative case.

Note.—To find out the Subject of a verb ask yourself, "Who or what does this ?" Or, "Who or what suffers this ?" Any noun or pronoun which answers this question must be in the Nominative case.

13. **Objective.**—A noun or pronoun is in the Objective case, when it is the object to a verb or to a preposition :—

The man rode a fine *horse* . . . (*Verb.*)
The earth is moistened by *rain* . . (*Preposition.*)

Exercise 2.

Pick out every noun in the following sentences, and say— (*a*) *what is its Gender,* (*b*) *what is its Case,* and (*c*) *what is its Number :—*

1. A friend called at our house in the evening. 2. Did you see the elephant, that was led into Dover with one man walking by its side and another seated on its neck ? 3. Between a cow and a dog, as between a cat and a dog, there seems to be a natural

enmity ; and between a cat and a cow there seems to be a natural friendship. 4. The King of England is monarch of a vast empire. 5. A herd of deer adds much to the beauty of a park. 6. How many sheep and how many goats are there in your flock ? 7. There are certain animals, such as cats, jackals, foxes, owls and tigers, that see things more clearly in the night than in the day : the brightness of the sun dazzles their eyes. 8. The heroine of that story was a poor lass, who was left an orphan at six years of age, but who conquered all difficulties and became a prosperous and happy woman. 9. The cattle are grazing on the side of the hill, and the cowherd is seated on the grass beside them. 10. The bridegroom will bring the bride to his house in a few days. 11. A peacock is one of the most beautiful of birds, and a lion is one of the stateliest of wild beasts. 12. A man, ignorant of the arts of reading, writing, and ciphering, is in point of knowledge more like a child than a man. 13. Cows are as fond of grass as bears are of honey. 14. Health is one of the greatest blessings that a man or woman can hope to enjoy in life. 15. The Czar of Russia is lord of the eastern half of Europe and the northern half of Asia, besides being master of a huge army and a large fleet. 16. A King who cannot live in peace and safety with his own subjects, and cannot leave his palace without fear, is not fit to reign. 17. The love of money is the root of all evil ; but by a proper use of money men can do much good.

SECTION 4.—THE KINDS OF NOUNS.

14. Nouns are of five different kinds—(1) Proper, (2) Common, (3) Collective, (4) Material, (5) Abstract. (The fundamental division is into (*a*) **Concrete**, which includes (1), (2), (3), and (4), and (*b*) **Abstract** ; see below, § 19.)

15. A **Proper** noun is a name given to *one particular* person or thing, and is not intended to denote more than one person or thing at a time ; as *James* (person), *New Testament* (book), *York* (city), *France* (country).

Note.—The writing of a Proper noun, or of any other kind of noun when it is used as a Proper noun, should be commenced with a capital letter.

16. A **Common** noun denotes no one person or thing in

particular, but is *common to all persons or things of the same kind*; as "man," "book," "country."

Here *man* does not point out any particular man, such as James, but can be used for *any and every* man. *Book* does not point out any particular book, such as the New Testament, but can be used for *any and every* book. *Country* does not point out any particular country, such as France, but can be used for *any and every* country in any part of the world.

17. A **Collective** noun denotes a *group, collection,* or *multitude,* considered as one complete whole.

For instance, there may be *many sheep* in a field, but only *one flock.* Here "sheep" is a Common noun, because it may stand for any and every sheep; but "flock" is a Collective noun, because it stands for *all the sheep at once* in that field, and not for any one sheep taken separately.

Note 1.—A Collective noun is a peculiar kind of Common noun. Thus "flock" is a Common noun for any number of flocks.

Note 2.—On the difference between a Collective noun and a noun of **Multitude** see Rule IV., § 100, in Chapter XIX.

18. A noun of **Material** denotes the *matter* or *substance* of which certain things are made; as in the following examples:—

A cow eats *grass.* Seeds are grown in *soil.* *Salt* is necessary to life. Fish live in *water.* We cannot live without *air.* *Zinc* is less valuable than *gold.* *Mud* is *soil* mixed with *water.* They live chiefly on *rice.* That bar is made of *iron.* *Fish* I prefer to *meat.* We had *meat* with *bread* and *butter.* We shall dine on *wheat* to-day. *Milk* is the best of foods. Some men never eat *flesh.* We can write with *ink* or with *chalk.* A black-board is made of *wood.*

Note.—Sometimes a Common noun has a Material noun that pairs with it; as *ox* (Common), *beef* (Material); *sheep* (Common), *mutton* (Material); *pig* (Common), *bacon* or *ham* or *pork* (Material); *deer* (Common), *venison* (Material); *tree* (Common), *timber* (Material), etc.

19. An **Abstract** noun denotes some *quality, state,* or *action* apart from any object or objects.

Quality.—Cleverness, height, humility, roguery, colour.
State.—Poverty, manhood, bondage, pleasure, youth.
Action.—Laughter, movement, flight, choice, revenge.

The four kinds of nouns named in §§ 15-18 all relate to *objects of sense*,—that is, to things which can be seen, touched, heard, smelt, or tasted, and all these kinds are called by the general name of **Concrete**. But an **Abstract** noun relates to things which cannot be seen or touched, etc., and which are thought of apart from any object or objects of sense.

For example—We know that stone is *hard*. We also know that iron is *hard*. We also know that a brick is *hard*. We can therefore speak of *hardness* apart from stone, or iron, or brick, or any other object having the same quality. "Abstract" means "drawn off" or "apart from" the object (Latin *abs*, off, and *tractus*, drawn).

How Abstract Nouns are formed.

20. Abstract nouns can be formed from Adjectives, or from Common nouns, or from Verbs, by adding some syllable or letter, which is called a suffix. Sometimes they are of the same form as Verbs.

(*a*) *Abstract Nouns formed from Adjectives.*

Adjective.	*Abstract Noun.*	*Adjective.*	*Abstract Noun.*
Wise	wisdom	Just	justice
Poor	poverty	Great	greatness
High	height	Hot	heat
Short	shortness	Sleepy	sleepiness
Honest	honesty	Bitter	bitterness
Dark	darkness	Wide	width
Long	length	Sole	solitude
Brave	bravery	Broad	breadth
Prudent	prudence	Deep	depth
Sweet	sweetness	True	truth
Young	youth	Cold	coldness
Proud	pride	Humble	humility

(*b*) *Abstract Nouns formed from Common Nouns.*

Common Noun.	*Abstract Noun.*	*Common Noun.*	*Abstract Noun.*
Man	manhood	Bond	bondage
Child	childhood	Hero	heroism
Friend	friendship	Thief	theft
Boy	boyhood	Mother	motherhood
Captain	captaincy	Rascal	rascality
Priest	priesthood	Rogue	roguery
Agent	agency	Slave	slavery
Regent	regency	Infant	infancy
King	kingship	Owner	ownership

(*c*) *Abstract Nouns formed from Verbs.*

Verb.	*Abstract Noun.*	*Verb.*	*Abstract Noun.*
Serve	service	Defend	defence
Live	life	Judge	judgment
Hate	hatred	Conceal	concealment
Obey	obedience	Seize	seizure
Choose	choice	Laugh	laughter
Move	motion	Expect	expectation
See	sight	Protect	protection
Relieve	relief	Think	thought
Believe	belief	Till	tillage
Please	pleasure	Steal	stealth
Advise	advice		

(*d*) *Abstract Nouns of the same form as Verbs.*

Verb.	*Abstract Noun.*	*Verb.*	*Abstract Noun.*
Fear	fear	Walk	walk
Hope	hope	Run	run
Desire	desire	Step	step
Regret	regret	Laugh	laugh
Order	order	Taste	taste
Rise	rise	Ride	ride
Fall	fall	Touch	touch
Stay	stay	Love	love
Stop	stop	Sleep	sleep

20*a*. There are certain parts of a verb, which are equivalent to Abstract nouns, that is, have the same *force* or meaning as Abstract nouns, although they are not the same in *form*. These are—(1) the Verbal noun ending in *-ing*, as "working"; (2) the Infinitive form which is preceded by *to*, as "to work." There is no difference in meaning between an Abstract noun, a Verbal noun, and an Infinitive :—

Work is good for health . . . (*Abstract Noun.*)
Working is good for health . . (*Verbal Noun.*)
To work is good for health . . (*Infinitive.*)

21. The class to which a Noun belongs depends on the sense in which the noun is used. The form does not always serve as a guide.

(*a*) Thus a Proper noun is sometimes used as a Common noun :—

A *Daniel* come to judgment.—SHAKESPEARE.

Here *Daniel* does not stand for the Jewish prophet, but for any man who resembles the Jewish prophet in wisdom and judgment.

Hence some Common nouns have been formed from Proper; as *epicure* (from Epicurus); *hansom* (from the inventor); *lumber* (from Lombard pawnbrokers); *mackintosh* (from the inventor); *currant* (from Corinth); *dunce* (from Duns Scotus); *calico* (from Calicut); *china* (from the country); *port* (from Oporto); *davy* (a miner's safety lamp, from the inventor); *guinea* (from the Guinea coast).

(*b*) An Abstract noun can be used as a Proper noun :

The *Terror* set sail yesterday.
Whatever he did, *Fortune* smiled on him.

Here "*Terror*" stands for the name of a ship. "*Fortune*" is used as if it were the name of a person. When an Abstract noun is thus used as a Proper noun, it is written with a Capital, as a Proper noun is.

(*c*) An Abstract noun is sometimes used as a Common noun :—

He is a lover of *justice* . . . (*Abstract.*)
He is a *justice* of the peace . . (*Common.*)

In the first sentence *justice* means the quality of being just. In the second it stands for the man who represents justice, viz. the judge.

She is a person of great *beauty* . . (*Abstract.*)
She is the *beauty* of the place . . (*Common.*)

In the first sentence *beauty* denotes the quality of being beautiful. In the second it denotes the person possessing the quality.

Poetry is one of the fine arts . . (*Abstract.*)
He wrote very good *poetry* . . (*Common.*)

In the first sentence *poetry* denotes the art; in the second the poem or poems written by some one.

(*d*) The same word can be a Material noun in one sentence and a Common noun in another :—

Fish live in water . . . . (*Common.*)
Fish is a good kind of food . . . (*Material.*)

In the first sentence the word *fish* denotes the animal; in the second its matter or substance.

Exercise 3.—*The kinds of Nouns.*

Point out the kind or use of each of the nouns occurring in the following sentences :—

1. A cow eats grass. 2. Seeds are sown in soil. 3. Give him the slate. 4. There is no slate to be got out of this quarry. 5. Is that chain of yours made of gold or brass? 6. Salt is necessary to life. 7. He is a man of great kindness. 8. He has done me many kindnesses. 9. We cannot live without air. 10. He is a man of very clear judgment. 11. The judgment that he gave on that case was too severe. 12. Milk is the best kind of food. 13. Some men never eat flesh. 14. A man, ignorant of the arts of reading, writing, and ciphering, is in point of knowledge more like a child than a man. 15. As soon as I heard that news, I was seized with wonder. 16. It is a wonder that he was not killed. 17. They had fish for dinner that day. 18. There are many fish in this river. 19. A black-board is made of wood. 20. We have a wood about half-a-mile from our house. 21. The Czar of Russia is lord of the northern half of Asia, besides being master of a huge army and a large fleet. 22. He lives in peace and safety with his own subjects.

CHAPTER III.—FORMS AND KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

SECTION 1.—THE KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

22. **Kinds of Adjectives.** — There are seven different kinds of adjectives :—

(1) **Proper** : formed from a proper name :—

A *Chinese* sailor = a sailor from China.
The *British* empire = the empire of Britain.
The *English* language = the language of England.

(2) **Descriptive** : showing of what *quality* or in what *state* a thing is. (These are sometimes called Qualitative.)

A *brave* boy. A *sick* lion. A *fertile* field. A *dark* night.

Note.—From such adjectives Abstract nouns are formed ; as *bravery, sickness, fertility, darkness.* See additional examples given in (*a*), § 20.

(3) **Quantitative** : showing *how much* of a thing is meant :—

He had *much* (a large quantity of) silver.
He ate *little* (a small quantity of) bread.
He walked the *whole* way back.
A *half* loaf is better than *no* bread.
He did not eat *any* (any quantity of) bread.

(4) **Numeral** : showing—(*a*) *how many* things are meant, or (*b*) *in what order* a thing stands :—

(*a*) Adjectives showing *how many* are called **Cardinals** :—

He had *seven* apples and *three* buns.

(*b*) Adjectives showing *in what order* are called **Ordinals** :—

He stood *seventh* in English and *third* in arithmetic.

Note.—Adjectives which refer to number, but specify no number in particular, are called **Indefinite** Numerals :—

All men are mortal. *Some* men are rich. *Many* men are poor. *Few* men are rich. *Several* men have come. *Sundry* men have gone.

(5) **Demonstrative** : showing *which* or *what* thing is meant. The most common are *this, that* (with Singular nouns) ; *these, those* (with Plural nouns) ; *such, same.*

Adjectives like *any, a certain, some, other, any other,* are called **Indefinite** Demonstratives.

This man came here to-day. *These* dogs are a nuisance.
That boat leaks: *those* persons will be drowned.
This is not the book I chose; I chose the *other* (book).
Such a man as that is to be admired.
He said the *same* thing two or three times.
He gave me the choice of *certain* books.
You must take *some* book or *other* (book).

Note.—Much care is needed in classifying the adjective "some." (*a*) "I have *some* bread"; here *some* denotes quantity, —a certain quantity of bread. (*b*) "I have *some* loaves"; here *some* denotes number,—a certain number of loaves, the actual number being unspecified. (*c*) "You must take *some* book or other"; here *some* denotes neither quantity nor number, but is a vague kind of Demonstrative.

(6) **Interrogative**: asking *which* or *what* thing is meant:—

What book is that? *Which* book do you prefer?

Note 1.—From these two examples it will be seen that *what* is used in a general sense, and *which* in a selective or particular sense. Out of the number of books before him the person addressed is asked to state which of them he prefers.

Note 2.—*What* is sometimes used in an exclamatory sense:—

What fine books you have bought!

(7) **Distributive**: showing that the things named are taken *separately* or *in separate lots*:—

The two men had *each* (man) a gun.
Every man was punctually in his place.
Take *either* side, whichever you like best.
Every four hours (that is, every period of four hours).

23. Articles.—It is convenient as well as customary to call *a* or *an* the Indefinite article, and *the* the Definite. But in point of fact these words are Demonstrative adjectives. *A* or *an* is merely a short form of *one*, and hence it is used only before nouns in the Singular number. *The* is merely a short form of *this, that, these,* or *those,* and hence it can be used before nouns in either number.

An is used before an open vowel or a silent consonant; as "an ox," "an hour," "an heir," "an honest man," "an historical event."

Note.—We say "*a* history," "*an* historical event," because in "history" the *h* is very distinctly sounded, while in "historical" the *h* is scarcely sounded at all. In "history" the accent is thrown on the first syllable; whereas in "historical" it is thrown on the second syllable.

A is used before a consonant; as "a box," "a house." It is also used before a vowel, when the *sound* of the vowel (not the *spelling*) is preceded by the sound of *w* or *y*:—

A useful thing. *A* one-eyed man. *A* ewe-lamb.

24. How Adjectives are Formed.—Some adjectives are original or primary words, as *dry, hot, quick, wet, long, short,* etc. Others are formed by adding a letter or syllable (which is called a suffix) to some noun, and occasionally, though less frequently, to some other adjective, or less frequently still to some verb or adverb.

(*a*) *Adjectives formed from Nouns.*

Noun.	*Adjective.*	*Noun.*	*Adjective.*
Stead	steadfast	Haste	hasty
Hope	hopeful, hopeless	Part	partial
Grace	graceful	Rome	Roman
Fear	fearless	Hercules	Herculean
Life	lifelike	Europe	European
Child	childish, childlike	Unit	unitarian
Quarrel	quarrelsome	Sale	saleable
Toil	toilsome	China	Chinese
Wretch	wretched	Picture	picturesque
Wood	wooden	Statue	statuesque
Woman	womanish, womanly	Infant	infantile, infantine
Fop	foppish	Glory	glorious
Might	mighty	Labour	laborious
Worth	worthy	Joy	joyous, joyful
Naught	naughty	Pity	piteous, pitiful

(*b*) *Adjectives formed from other Adjectives.*

1st Adj.	*2nd Adj.*	*1st Adj.*	*2nd Adj.*
Two	twofold	Dramatic	dramatical
Many	manifold	Periodic	periodical
Four	fourteen	Politic	political
	forty	Pale	palish
Three	thirteen	Red	reddish
	thirty	Middle	middling
Full	fulsome	Sick	sickly
Whole	wholesome	Poor	poorly
Comic	comical	Tacit	taciturn

(*c*) *Adjectives formed from Verbs.*

Verb.	*Adjective.*	*Verb.*	*Adjective.*
Cease	ceaseless	Talk	talkative
Resist	resistless	Snap	snappish
Tire	tiresome	Move	movable

(*d*) *Adjectives formed from Adverbs.*

Adverb.	*Adjective.*	*Adverb.*	*Adjective.*
Up	upright	Fore	forward
Down	downright	In	inward
Fro	froward	Out	utmost

Exercise 4.

Pick out all the adjectives in the following sentences, and say to what class each of them belongs :—

1. Some persons were present, but I cannot say how many. 2. A live ass is better than a dead lion. 3. Twenty students are in the fourth class, and each has a book on English history. 4. A lazy boy gives much trouble to both his parents. 5. A little learning is a dangerous thing. 6. There is a forest of fine old oak-trees on either bank of the river. 7. Which pace do you like best in a horse, trotting or cantering ? 8. The whole distance travelled on that day was thirty-two miles. 9. Roman history has been divided into several different periods ; and the beginning of each period is marked by some great event. 10. The two great periods in the history of the Roman Empire are the pagan and the Christian. 11. London is the greatest city in the modern world, as Rome was in the ancient.

SECTION 2.—COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

25. Adjectives have no change of form (such as nouns and pronouns have) to express Number, Gender, and Case.

The single exception is **this, that; these, those.** The two first are used with Singular nouns; as "this man," "that man." The two last are used with Plural ones; as "these men," "those men."

26. **Degrees of Comparison.**—But adjectives incur a change of form, according to the degree of comparison in which they are used.

There are **three degrees** of Comparison,—the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

The Positive denotes the simple quality; as "*fat* ox."

The Comparative denotes a higher degree of the quality; as "*fatter* ox." This is used, when *two* things are compared in respect of a certain quality.

The Superlative denotes the highest degree of the quality; as "the fattest ox." This is used, when one thing is compared with *all other* things of the same kind.

Note.—Of the seven kinds of adjectives named in § 22, the only one that admits of being freely used in different degrees of comparison is the Descriptive. Among Quantitative adjectives there are only two: *much, more, most*; and *little, less, least.* Among Numeral adjectives there are only two: *many, more, most: few, fewer, fewest.*

Among Descriptive adjectives there are some which from the nature of their meaning cannot have degrees of comparison.

(*a*) Shape, as *round, square, oblong, triangular, four-footed.*
(*b*) Material, as *golden, vegetable, leathern, wheaten,* etc.
(*c*) Time, as *weekly, annual, monthly, hourly,* etc.
(*d*) Place, as *Kentish, Canadian, insular, celestial,* etc.
(*e*) Natural objects, as *solar, lunar, sidereal.*
(*f*) Qualities in the highest degree, as *perfect, eternal.*
(*g*) Qualities in a moderate degree, as *reddish, palish.*

27. **Regular Comparatives.**—There are two regular methods of forming the second and third degrees of Comparison:—

(1) By adding the adverbs *more* and *most*. This is the method generally used for adjectives of two syllables; and it is the only method used for adjectives of more than two syllables :—

More beautiful (not beautifuller).	Most beautiful (not beautifullest).
More famous (not famouser).	Most famous (not famousest).

(2) By adding *er* and *est* to the Positive. This is called the Flexional method. Observe the following rules :—

(*a*) If the Positive ends in *two* consonants or in a *single* consonant preceded by a *long* vowel, it incurs no change of spelling when *er* and *est* are added :—

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Super.*	*Pos.*	*Comp.*	*Super.*
Small	smaller	smallest	Great	greater	greatest
Thick	thicker	thickest	Brief	briefer	briefest
Bold	bolder	boldest	Deep	deeper	deepest

(*b*) If the Positive ends in a *single* consonant, and this consonant is preceded by a *short* vowel, the final consonant is doubled before *er* and *est* :—

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Super.*	*Pos.*	*Comp.*	*Super.*
Thin	thinner	thinnest	Wet	wetter	wettest
Hot	hotter	hottest	Glad	gladder	gladdest

(*c*) If the Positive ends in *e*, we add *r* and *st*, not *er* and *est* : —

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Super.*	*Pos.*	*Comp.*	*Super.*
Brave	braver	bravest	Large	larger	largest
Free	freer	freest	Fine	finer	finest
True	truer	truest	White	whiter	whitest

(*d*) If the Positive ends in *y*, and the *y* is preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed to *i* before *er* and *est*. But if the *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is not changed :—

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Super.*	*Pos.*	*Comp.*	*Super.*
Happy	happier	happiest	Grey	greyer	greyest
Dry	drier	driest	Gay	gayer	gayest

Note.—The only dissyllables in which *er* and *est* are commonly used are (1) those ending in *le*, as *humble, noble, feeble, simple, ample*, etc. ; (2) those ending in *y*, as *happy, early, gloomy,*

lazy, dirty, heavy, easy; (3) those ending in *er*, as *tender, bitter, clever, sober*. Such words as *supple, subtle, docile, fragile, eager*, are exceptions: here you must use the adverbs *more* and *most*.

If the final syllable of a dissyllable is accented, *-er* and *est* can be used, as *sublime, sublimer*; *severe, severer*. But such examples are rare.

28. **Irregular Comparatives.**—In the words marked * the comparison is *defective* rather than irregular; that is, the Positive has no Comp. or Superl. of its own, but has borrowed them from an adjective that has no Positive of its own.

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Super.*
Good*	better	best
Bad,* ill*	worse	worst
Little*	less	least
Much*	more	most
Many*	more	most
Hind	hinder	hindmost

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Super.*
Old	older	oldest
	elder	eldest
Late	later	latest
	latter	last
Fore	former	foremost
		first
	further	furthest [1]

There are five words which are adverbs in the Positive degree, but adjectives in the Comparative and Superlative:—

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Super.*
Far	farther	farthest
In	inner	innermost
		inmost
Up	upper	uppermost

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Super.*
Out	outer	utmost
	utter	uttermost
(Be)neath	nether	nethermost

Exercise 5.

Write out the Comparatives and Superlatives of the following adjectives; and use, whenever you can, the forms er *and* est:—

Fierce, merry, short, loud, good, docile, permanent, handsome, sweet, able, little, bad, jealous, clever, much, pretty, large, late, rich, flat, few, red, soft, strange, idle, tall, kind, horrible, guilty.

[1] The words *elder, eldest*, apply only to persons: as "He is the *elder* of my two sons." The words *older, oldest* apply to things as well as persons; as, "That is the *oldest* tree in the orchard."

The words *later, latest* denote differences of time; as, "This is the *latest* news." The words *latter, last* denote differences of position; as, "This was

CHAPTER IV.—FORMS AND KINDS OF PRONOUNS.

29. Kinds of Pronouns.—There are four different kinds of pronouns :—

(1) **Personal** : *I, thou, you, he, she, it, they,* etc.

(2) **Demonstrative** : *one, this, that, such,* etc.

(3) **Relative** or **Conjunctive** : *who, which, that, as.*

(4) **Interrogative** : *who ? which ? what ?*

Note 1.—We must exclude from the list of Pronouns such words as *any, each, every, some, either, neither.* These words are used **with** nouns, not **for** nouns ; and therefore they are adjectives. As has been shown in § 22, these adjectives are either Demonstrative (*some, any*) or Distributive (*each, every, either, neither*). They **qualify** nouns expressed or understood, and are not **substitutes** for nouns. Therefore they are not Pro-nouns.

Note 2.—The definition of Pronoun given in § 3,—"a word used instead of a Noun or Noun-equivalent,"—is conveniently short and simple, but is not quite sufficient ; for we cannot say that *I* or *those* or *who ?* is used instead of any noun that has been expressed. The definition which covers *all* classes of pronouns is that given in § 1, (2), "a word which *refers* to some person or thing *without giving a name* to the person or thing referred to."

Section 1.—Personal Pronouns.

30. The **Personal** pronouns are so called, because they stand for the three persons, viz.—

(*a*) The First, or the person *speaking* ; as *I, we, myself.*

(*b*) The Second, or the person *spoken to* ; as *thou, you, thyself.*

(*c*) The Third, or what is *spoken of* ; as *he, she, it, himself,* etc.

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the *last* boy in the class." The word *last* can also denote time ; as, "This is the *last* time that I shall see you."

The words *farther, farthest* denote differences of distance ; as, "Exeter is *farther* from London than Bath." The words *further, furthest* denote differences of degree, or of progress, or of advance ; as, "Make no *further* complaints" ; "I shall go no *further* to-day."

The First Person, Masculine or Feminine.

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
Nominative . .	I	We
Possessive . .	My, mine	Our, ours
Objective . . .	Me	Us

The Second Person, Masculine or Feminine.

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
Nominative . .	Thou	Ye or you
Possessive . .	Thy, thine	Your, yours
Objective . . .	Thee	You

The Third Person, of all Genders.

Case.	Singular.			Plural.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	All Genders.
Nominative .	He	She	It	They
Possessive .	His	Her, hers	Its	Their, theirs
Objective .	Him	Her	It	Them

31. The Possessive cases of most of these pronouns have, as you will have seen, two forms :—[1]

[1] In the report of the Terminological Committee (1910) a groundless distinction is drawn between the forms *my, thy, her, our, your, their* and the forms *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs* respectively. The former are declared to be adjectives, and the latter pronouns. The alleged distinction is both logically unsound and historically false.

It is logically unsound, because they all alike have, and cannot but have, a qualifying or adjectival force. In languages of the Indo-Germanic family, to which English belongs, this is the main function of the Possessive or Genitive case of nouns and pronouns.

It is historically false, because the final *n*, *r*, and *s* are all signs of the Possessive case in Anglo-Saxon or Old English, and *my* or *thy* is the same word as *mine* or *thine*, except that in modern English the *n* has been cut off before consonants for phonetic purposes. *Hers, ours, yours, theirs* are simply double Possessives, an *s* being added to the first inflection *r*. To call the double Possessive a pronoun and the single Possessive an adjective is imposing a very severe tax on one's reason. In the same scheme *his* is declared to be an adjective in one context and a pronoun in another : whereas every one knows

	Singular.			Plural.		
First Form	My	Thy	Her	Our	Your	Their
Second ,,	Mine	Thine	Hers	Ours	Yours	Theirs

The first form is used, when it stands *before* the noun with which it is joined :—

My book, thy book, her book; our book, your book, their book.

The second form is used—(*a*) when it is separated from the noun by a verb coming between; (*b*) when a noun is not expressed after it; (*c*) when it is preceded by the preposition " of " :—

(*a*) This book is *mine*. That house is *theirs*.
(*b*) My horse and *yours* (your horse) are both tired.
(*c*) That horse *of yours* is tired.

32. When " self " or " own " is added to a personal pronoun, the pronoun is called either **Reflexive** or **Emphatic**.

I. *The First Person.*

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
Nom. or *Objec.* .	Myself	Ourselves
Possessive . .	My own, mine own	Our own

II. *The Second Person.*

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
Nom. or *Objec.* .	Thyself	Yourselves
Possessive . .	Thy own, thine own	Your own

that *his* contains the Possessive or Genitive inflection *s* attached to the root *hi*, and has come to us unchanged from the time of Alfred the Great. *Its* in the Committee's report is placed like *his* among Possessive adjectives, but has not been granted a place among Possessive pronouns. Yet every one knows that *its* is a pronoun in the Possessive case formed within recent times by adding the inflection *s* to the root *it* on the analogy of *his*.

The difference between *my* and *mine* (and the corresponding forms of other Personal pronouns shown in § 31) is not one of nature as Adjective or not-Adjective, but of use as prescribed by modern idiom. The differences in use are fully explained in the text.

III. *The Third Person.*

Case.	Singular.			Plural.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	All Genders.
Nom. or *Objec.*	Himself	Herself	Itself	Themselves
Possessive .	His own	Her own	Its own	Their own

Exercise 6.

Put pronouns in the place of the nouns noted below :—

1. I told James that the snake seen by *James* in the garden would do *James* no harm, if *James* left *the snake* alone to go *the snake's* own way.

2. The girl went into the green field, and there *the girl* saw the sheep and lambs, as the *sheep and lambs* played about in *the field.*

3. A man brought round some wild beasts for a show. Among *the beasts* there was an elephant. *The man* threw cakes at the elephant, and *the elephant* caught *the cakes* in *the elephant's* trunk.

4. A dog was carrying an umbrella for *the dog's* master. Some boys tried to take away *the umbrella* from the dog. But *the dog* was too quick for *the boys. The dog* ran past *the boys* at full speed, and carried the umbrella safely out of *the boys'* reach.

5. When the camel is being loaded, *the camel* kneels down so that the load may be put on *the camel's* back. *The camel* loves men, if *men* treat *the camel* well.

6. The bees are flying towards the flowers. *The bees* suck *the flowers,* and fill *the bees'* bags with honey.

7. Wolves hunt in large packs, and when *wolves* are pressed by hunger, *wolves* become very fierce, and will attack men and eat *men* up greedily.

8. A horse cannot defend *a horse* against wolves ; but *a horse* can run from *wolves,* and *wolves* are not always able to catch *a horse.*

Section 2.—Demonstrative Pronouns.

33. A **Demonstrative** pronoun points to some noun going before, and is used instead of it. The noun going before is called its **Antecedent.**

34. **This, that, these, those.** — These words are *adjectives*, when they are used **with** a noun (expressed or understood); but they are *pronouns*, when they are used **for** a noun :—[1]

(1) Work and play are both necessary to health : *this* (namely play) gives us rest, and *that* (namely work) gives us energy.

Here *this* is a pronoun, because it is used instead of "play"; *that* is a pronoun, because it is used instead of "work."

(2) *This* house and *that* (house) are both to let.

Here *this* is not a pronoun, but an adjective, because it qualifies the noun "house," and is not used instead of it. *That* is also an adjective, because it qualifies the noun "house" understood after it.

35. **One, ones, none.**—When the antecedent noun is Singular, we use *one*. When it is Plural, we use *ones*. "None" is a shortened form of "not one," but it may stand either for a Singular or a Plural noun.

(1) I prefer a white horse to a black *one*.

Here *one* is a pronoun, because it is used instead of "horse."

(2) He came to my house *one* day.

Here *one* is an adjective, because it qualifies the noun "day."

Note.—"They" and "one" are sometimes used without reference to any antecedent. They are then called **Indefinite** Demonstrative pronouns :—

They say that he is very clever.
One must take care of *one's* health.

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[1] The manner in which the Terminological Committee of 1910 distinguished *this* and *that* as Pronouns from *this* and *that* as Adjectives is entirely different from that given in the text, and is in my opinion both inadequate and useless. The Committee's ruling is worded as follows :—

That English *this* and *that*, if used with a noun, be called Demonstrative *Adjectives*, but if used without a noun, be called Demonstrative *Pronouns* : and that the same terminology be applied to the corresponding words in other languages.

Undoubtedly in such a sentence as "This house and that are both to let" the word *this* is a Demonstrative adjective qualifying the noun "house." There is no noun after the word *that*. According to the Committee's ruling, then, *that* is a pronoun. Obviously, if *this* is an adjective, *that* must be an adjective also ; for the noun "house" belongs equally to both Demonstratives. The distinction drawn by the Committee is no distinction at all.

Here *they* and *one* refer to no antecedent. They are Indefinite, and stand for no person or persons in particular.

Exercise 7.

Show whether each of the words printed in Italics in the following examples is a Demonstrative adjective or a Demonstrative pronoun. If it is a pronoun, show whether it is Definite or Indefinite :—

1. *This* horse is stronger than *that*. 2. Health is of more value than money ; *this* cannot give such true happiness as *that*. 3. I prefer a house built of stone to *one* built of brick. 4. You will repent of this *one* day, when it is too late. 5. You have kept your promise ; *this* was all that I asked for. 6. The faithfulness of a dog is greater than *that* of a cat. 7. *One* Mr. B. helped his friend in need ; *that* was a true friend. 8. Bring me *that* book, and leave *this* where it is. 9. The step you have taken is *one* of much risk. 10. A pale light, like *that* of the moon, begins to fringe the horizon.

SECTION 3.—RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

36. A **Relative** pronoun is so called, because it *relates* to some noun or Personal pronoun going before. Another name by which it is called is "**Conjunctive,**" because it joins two sentences. The noun or Personal pronoun to which the Conjunctive pronoun relates is called the **Antecedent.**

Case.	Singular and Plural. Masc. and Fem.	Singular and Plural. Neuter.
Nominative . .	Who	Which
Possessive . .	Whose	Whose, or of which
Objective . . .	Whom	Which

Exercise 8.

(*a*) *Point out the Antecedent to the Relative pronouns noted below, and say in what case each Relative is :—*

1. We love those persons *who* are kind to us.
2. The pen *whose* point was broken has been mended.
3. The ground *which* we dig will bear a fine crop.

4. That is the man *whom* we saw yesterday.
5. Is this a dagger *which* I see before me ?
6. We left the house in *which* we had long lived.
7. He lost the box of clothes *which* I brought.
8. The child *whose* parents are dead is an orphan.

(*b*) *Join each pair of sentences into a single sentence by putting a Relative pronoun in the place of the Personal pronoun :—*

1. This is the house ; Jack built it.
2. This book is a good one ; I read *it.*
3. This is the man ; I read *his* book.
4. The boy has come ; *he* lost his hat.
5. The girl has come ; you were looking for *her.*
6. These are the trees ; *their* leaves have fallen.
7. You built this house ; I have long lived in *it.*
8. These men have fled ; the ox was stolen by *them.*
9. Look at those boys ; we read in class with *them.*

(*c*) *Supply the Relative pronoun in the following sentences:—*

1. The box —— I bought was soon lost by him.
2. The man —— I met to-day was an old friend.
3. These are the only things —— I was looking for.
4. This is the book —— I won as a prize.

36*a*. The Relative pronoun, provided it would be in the Objective case, is often omitted.

Supply the omissions in the following :—

1. Be so kind as to pick up the book I dropped.
2. The girl you teach is very clever.
3. Have you seen the boy I sent for ?
4. This is the house we lived in.
5. These are the wolves I shot to-day.

Note 1.—If the Relative is in the *Nominative* case, it cannot be omitted. Thus we can say :—

I found the man *who* came yesterday.

But we cannot say—

I found the man came yesterday.

Note 2.—The antecedent to a Relative is sometimes omitted.

Whom the gods love die young.
What cannot be cured must be endured.

Here *whom* signifies *they whom*. *What* stands for *that thing which*, or *those things which*.

Note 3.—The Relative *which* can also be used without having an antecedent expressed. But it has a selective or special sense, that distinguishes it from *what*.

I know *what* I want.
I know *which* I want.

Here *what* is more general than *which*. The latter implies choice or selection.

Note 4.—*What* can also be used in an exclamatory sense.

What a noise you are making!

37. That, as, but.—"*That*" and "*as*" can be used for "who," "whom," or "which," but not for "whose." "*As*" was originally a conjunction, but is now used as a Relative pronoun after *such* and sometimes after *same*.

The man *that* we were looking for has come.
This is the *same* book *as* yours.
He is not *such* a clever student *as* you are.

But.—This conjunction is sometimes used as if it were a Relative pronoun signifying *who . . . not* or *which . . . not*.

There is no one *but* agrees to it =
There is no one *who* does *not* agree to it.

"*But*," however, is not really a Pronoun, but a Conjunction: "There is no one, *but he* agrees to it"; It never rains *but it* pours." In the sentence "There is no one but agrees to it," the pronoun "he" has been omitted, and must therefore be understood.

SECTION 4.—INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

38. The name **In-ter-rog-a-tive** is given to those pronouns that are used for asking questions:—

Who spoke? . . . . (*Nominative to the Verb.*)
Of *whom* did he speak? . . (*Objective after preposition.*)
What did he say? . . . (*Objective after verb.*)
Who are you? . . . . (*Complement to the verb.*)
Whose book is that? . . . (*Possessive case.*)
Which of them won the prize? . (*Nominative to the verb.*)
Whether of them twain did the will of his father? . . . (*Nominative to the verb.*)

Note.—*Which* (as has been explained already) is used in a selective sense, implying a choice or selection among a certain number of persons or things. In this respect it differs from *who* or *what*, both of which are quite general. *Whether* means "*which* of two," and is therefore far less general than *which*. But *whether* as an Interrogative pronoun has become obsolete, *i.e.* it has passed out of current use. As an Interrogative conjunction (see the fourth example in § 59) it is still commonly used.

CHAPTER V.—FORMS AND KINDS OF ADVERBS.

Section 1.—The Kinds of Adverbs.

39. **Three kinds of Adverbs.**—The three kinds of adverbs are—

I. Simple. II. Interrogative. III. Relative or Conjunctive.

40. **Simple Adverbs.**—These are distinguished from one another according to their meaning. The chief meanings expressed by Adverbs are shown below.

(*a*) **Quality** or **Manner.**—He acted *thus*. He did his work *slowly*, but *surely*. He behaved *foolishly*. We must *needs* try again.

(*b*) **Quantity** or **Degree.**—He is *almost*, but not *quite*, the cleverest boy in the class. He is *very* clever, but *rather* or *somewhat* indolent. He is clever *enough* for me. He is *too* clever for me (= cleverer than what I require or desire). A is *more* clever than B. A is the *most* industrious boy in the class.

Note.—The word "*the*," when it is placed before an adjective or adverb of the Comparative degree, is not the definite article, but an *adverb of Quantity* (formed from Anglo-Saxon *thȳ*). "*The* sooner, *the* better" = *by how much* sooner, *by so much* better.

(*c*) **Number.**—He *seldom* failed, and *always* did his best. Try *again*. He has tried *twice* already. He *often* failed.

(*d*) **Time.**—He did this *before*, and you have done it *since*. He will *soon* be here. He has *already* come. Some time *ago*.

(*e*) **Place.**—We must rest *here*, and not *there*. *South-ward*, *home-ward*, *on-ward*. *In-side*, *outside*. *Hither*, *thither*, *whither*.

Note.—The adverb *there* is used with Intransitive verbs, when the verb is placed *before* its Nominative instead of *after* it; as "*There* stood a man at the gate." In such positions *there* is merely introductory, and has no signification of place.

(*f*) **Affirming** or **Denying.**—He will *probably* return to-day. We shall *certainly* succeed. He did *not* come. *Perhaps* he will come.

(*g*) **Emphasizing.**—He *too* or he *also* was absent. *Even* he was dismissed. *Only* one man was caught.

41. The **Interrogative** adverbs are those used for asking questions. Many of these adverbs are compounds, *i.e.* are expressed by two words, not merely by one.

(*a*) **Quality** or **Manner.**—*How* (in what manner) did he do this? *How* (in what state of health) is he to-day?

(*b*) **Quantity** or **Degree.**—*How far* (to what extent) is this report true?

(*c*) **Number.**—*How often* did he come? *How* many persons came?

(*d*) **Time.**—*When* did he come? *How long* will he remain here? *How soon* will he go?

(*e*) **Place.**—*Where* did he go? *How far* (to what distance) did he go? *Whence* has he come.

(*f*) **Cause.**—*Why* (for what reason or cause) did he say this? *Wherefore* does she weep?

42. **Relative** or **Conjunctive adverbs.**—The Interrogative adverbs, when they are not used for asking a question, but *relate* to some antecedent, are called **Relative** adverbs. They are also called **Conjunctive,** because they join sentences:—

This is the place *where* (= in which) we dwell.

Sometimes the Antecedent is not expressed:—

This is *where* we dwell.

Here the adverb *where* does two things—(1) it modifies the verb of its own sentence "we dwell," as if it were a Simple adverb; (2) it joins its own sentence to the previous sentence "this is," as if it were a conjunction.

Section 2.—Comparison of Adverbs.

43. Adverbs, like adjectives, take no change of form, except when they are used in different degrees of Comparison.

(*a*) If the adverb is of one syllable, we add *er* and *est* to the Positive :—

Fast	faster	fastest	Long	longer	longest
Hard	harder	hardest	Loud	louder	loudest
Near	nearer	nearest	Late	later	latest or last

Note.—The adjective "near" has two adverbial forms, *near* and *nearly*, but their meanings are not the same : "He stood *near* (= a short distance off) : he *nearly* (= almost) fell."

The adjective *late* has two adverbial forms, *late* and *lately*, in the Positive degree, and two, *last* and *lastly*, in the Superlative. but their meanings are not the same.

(*b*) In some adverbs the Comparative forms are irregular :—

Well	better	best	Much	more	most
Badly	worse	worst	Little	less	least

(*c*) Adverbs ending in *-ly* form the Comparative and Superlative by adding *more* and *most* :—

Wisely	more wisely	most wisely
Beautifully	more beautifully	most beautifully

The adjective *early* has the same form, *early*, for its adverb ; and the same forms, *earlier* and *earliest*, for the Comparative and Superlative degrees.

The only adverbs that freely admit of degrees of Comparison are Simple adverbs of Quality. These might be called **Descriptive** adverbs. They answer to the Descriptive adjectives mentioned in § 26, *Note*, the only kind of adjective that freely admits of Comparative and Superlative forms.

Section 3.—The Forms of Adverbs.

44. Some Adverbs have the same form as the corresponding adjectives. In this case the one must be distinguished

from the other by the *work that it does* (§ 1) in the sentence. Both are qualifying words; but an adjective qualifies a noun or pronoun, while an adverb qualifies any part of speech except a noun or pronoun; see § 1 (3) and (7).

Adverb.	*Adjective.*
He was *much* pleased.	There is *much* sickness here.
He stayed *long*.	He went on a *long* journey.
He spoke *loud*.	There is a sound of *loud* voices.
He came *early*.	He woke up at an *early* hour.
He hit him *hard*.	This is a *hard* piece of wood.
Stand *near* while I speak.	He is my *near* relation.
He was *a little* tired.	There is *a little* hope now.
He came *only* once.	This is my *only* son.
He has slept *enough*.	He has had *enough* sleep.
He rode *fast*.	He rode at a *fast* gallop.
He arrived *late*.	He arrived at a *late* hour.

45. **Adverbs in "-ly."**—Most Adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding *-ly*.

Adjective.	*Adverb.*
Wise	wisely (*Adverb of Quality or Manner*)
Whole	wholly (*Adverb of Quantity*)
First	firstly (*Adverb of Number or Order*)
Former	formerly (*Adverb of Time*)
Distant	distantly (*Adverb of Place*)
Certain	certainly (*Adverb of Affirming*)

But this form of the Adverb occurs most frequently in Simple adverbs of *Quality* or *Manner*; and there is generally an Abstract noun which can be placed between the Adjective and Adverb:—

Adjective.	*Abstract Noun.*	*Adverb.*
Wise	wisdom	wisely
Poor	poverty	poorly
High	height	highly
Short	shortness	shortly

Note.—Adjectives ending in *le* form the adverb by changing *e* into *y*; as *simple, simply; humble, humbly; single, singly; audible, audibly; probable, probably.*

46. Adverbs formed from Pronouns.—

		Adverbs.				
		Rest.	Motion to.	Motion from.	Time.	Manner.
Dem.	**This**	there	thither	thence	then	thus
	He	here	hither	hence	...	...
Rel.	**Who**	where	whither	whence	when	how
Inter.	**Who?**	where?	whither?	whence?	when?	how?

Many of the above adverbs can be compounded with prepositions :—

From "there" we get *therein, thereto, therefore, therefrom, therewith, thereout, thereon, thereby, thereof.*

From "here" we get *herein, hereto, heretofore, herewith, hereupon, hereby, hereafter.*

From "where" we get *wherein, whereto, wherefore, whereon, whereof.*

From "hither" we get *hitherto* (= up to this point of place or time).

From "thence" we get *thenceforth, thenceforward.*

From "hence" we get *henceforth, henceforward.*

47. Adverbs ending in "s."—These have been formed from the Possessive cases of nouns :—

Needs (= of need, necessarily). *Once* (= of one, *i.e.* of one time). *Twice* (= of two times). *Sometimes* (= of some time). *Always* (= of all way). *Sideways* (= of a side-way). *Lengthways* (= of a length-way). *Else* (= of other, from an old form, "elles," of another). *Besides* (adverbial form of *beside*).

48. Adverbial Phrases.—There is a large class of words in English which are made up of two or more words, and may be called Adverbial phrases :—

(1) A preposition followed by a noun :—*At random* (aimlessly); *of course* (necessarily); *at length* (finally); *in fact* (actually); *to boot* (moreover); *of a truth* (truly).

(2) A preposition amalgamated with a noun :—*Indeed* (actually); *betimes* (punctually); *besides* (in addition); *between* (in the middle); *to-day* (on this day); *to-morrow* (on the next day); *asleep* (in a state of sleep); *abed* (in bed); *away* (on the way).

Note.—The "*be*" is an old form of the preposition "by." The "*a*" is a contracted form of the preposition "on" or "in."

(3) A preposition followed by an adjective. Some noun is understood after the adjective:—*In general, in particular, in short, at large, in vain, on high, of old, after all, at first, at last, at least, at all, at most, at best, in future, at present.*

(4) A preposition amalgamated with an adjective. Here, as before, some noun is understood after the adjective:—*Below, beyond, behind, abroad, anew, awry, across, along, aloud,* etc.

(5) A noun qualified by an adjective;—*Meantime, meanwhile, midway, yesterday,* etc.

(6) Miscellaneous phrases:—*By all means, by no means, by the by* (something said in passing), *by the way* (the same meaning as *by the by*), *once on a time, inside out, upside down, to be sure* (certainly), *head foremost* (with the head in front), *head downwards, topsy-turvy, head over heels* (the head being thrown over the heels).

49. Adverbs sometimes go together *in pairs,* the one being connected with the other by the conjunction "and":—

He is walking *up and down, to and fro.*
He is walking *here and there, hither and thither.*
The mice run *in and out, backwards and forwards.*
He comes here *now and then* (occasionally).
He works *off and on* (irregularly).
You will see him *by and by* (in a short time).

CHAPTER VI.—PREPOSITIONS.

50. **Preposition and Adverb.**—A Preposition must not be confounded with an Adverb, though the two words are often identical in form. The only way to distinguish them is to look to the *work that each of them does.* § 1 (5), (7).

Whenever an Adverb is used, only *one* factor in the sentence is affected by it, viz. the word or phrase which it qualifies; as "He walked *about.*" Here the word "about" qualifies the verb "walked" and nothing more.

Whenever a Preposition is used, *two* factors at least are affected by it, viz. (1) the word that is its object, and (2) the word that is connected with its object by the Preposition. "He walked *about* the field." Here "about" connects its object "the field" with the verb "walked." The Preposition shows what the field *has to do with* the act of walking, or in what relation the one stands to the other, § 1 (5). The noun or pronoun following the Preposition is in the Objective case.[1]

Examples.

Adverb.	*Preposition.*
The man ran *past.*	He came at half-*past* seven.
The *above*-named book.	The sky is *above* the earth.
He swam *across.*	The house stands *across* that field.
I saw him once *before.*	He stood *before* the door.
Go *along* quickly.	Let us walk *along* the bank.
You must go *behind.*	A man stood *behind* the door.
He sat *below.*	He stood *below* me in the class.
There is nothing *beyond.*	They went *beyond* the mark.
The horse was going *by.*	*By* whom was this done ?
Sit *down* here.	The boat floats *down* the stream.
He sat *inside.*	The book is *inside* the box.
The men stood *around.*	They walked *around* the fields.
He is standing *near.*	Your house is *near* mine.
He died two years *since.*	*Since* that year I have been ill.
Stand *up* as straight as you can.	Walk *up* the hill.
He lived *on* for two years.	A book is *on* the table.
He came a few days *after.*	He came *after* a few days.
Bees fly *in* and out.	Fish swim *in* water.
There were four men *besides,*	and ten more *besides* these.
The house was clean *within.*	I slept *within* the house.
The house was clean *without.*	Animals die *without* food.

[1] In the report of the Terminological Committee (1910) it is declared that the case of a noun or pronoun placed after a preposition as its object is always an Accusative,—this on the analogy of Vulgar Latin and Byzantine Greek. The statement is altogether untenable. In Old English a Dative case was used after prepositions even more frequently than an Accusative. In Modern English, where the distinction between Dative and Accusative has been practically extinct for several centuries past, it is quite enough to say that the noun or pronoun used as object to a preposition is in the Objective case.

51. A Preposition, according to the definition given in § 3 (5), shows in what relation one thing stands to another thing, *i.e.* what one thing has to do with another. Some examples of such relations are given below :—

1. *Place, Situation, Circumstance.*

In.—Stand *in* the water. He is *in* a bad temper.

Into.—Go *into* the water. Water can be changed *into* steam.

Through.—Go *through* the door. He passed *through* many dangers.

Past or **beyond.**—*Beyond* or *past* the boundary. This is *past* or *beyond* endurance.

On or **upon.**—Sit *on* or *upon* the box. *On* this condition I will trust you.

At.—He is not *at* home. He was much *at* fault.

By.—Sit *by* me. I will abide *by* my promise.

With.—I will go *with* you. All *with* one exception failed.

Over or **above.**—Air is *above* the earth. He spends *above* his income.

Below or **under.**—Snakes live *under* or *below* the ground. The matter is *under* inquiry. *Under* these circumstances he was released.

Behind.—The dog is *behind* you. There is a smile *behind* his frown.

Before.—Stand *before* the door. Duty *before* (in preference to) pleasure.

To.—He has gone *to* England. This is much *to* your credit.

For.—He starts *for* home. He worked hard *for* a prize.

From.—He starts *from* home. We are now free *from* danger.

Of.—He shot wide *of* the mark. He was robbed *of* his purse.

About.—Walk *about* the streets. He went *about* his business.

Near.—Come *near* the spot. His success is *near* my heart.

Along.—The boats were tied *along* the shore.

Among or **amid.**—Let us walk *amid* the trees. They quarrelled *among* themselves. (*Among* is used for *more than two* things.)

Between.—*Between* the two banks of the river. He still halts *between* two opinions. (*Between* is chiefly (not always) used for *two* things; as, There was peace *between* France, England, and Russia.)

Up, down.—The monkey ran *up* and *down* the tree.
Across.—He sailed *across* the sea. Sit *across* the saddle.
Around or **round.**—Describe a circle *round* a given centre.
Beside.—He sat *beside* me. He is *beside* himself with anger.
Besides.—He has two sons in India *besides* one in England.
Against.—It is not easy to swim *against* the stream.
Without.—He stands *without* (outside) the gate. Men cannot live *without* food.
Within.—He is *within* the house. This is not *within* my power.

2. *Time.*

In.—He finished the work *in* ten days. He arrived *in* time.
Through.—He has been a lazy man *through* or *throughout* his whole life.
Past or **beyond.**—He is now *past* or *beyond* the age of forty.
On.—I will expect you *on* Monday next.
At.—Bats fly out *at* night; but retire *at* daybreak.
By.—The sun shines *by* day; the moon *by* night.
With.—*With* the return of the hot winds the grass fades.
Over.—He was absent *over* two weeks.
Under.—You will not finish that work *under* two months.
Behind, after.—He arrived *behind* time. He returned *after* many days.
Before.—He commenced work *before* seven o'clock A.M.
To.—*To*-day, *to*-night, *to*-morrow. The train is not up *to* time.
For.—He was made a prisoner *for* life.
From.—They commence work daily *from* ten o'clock.
About.—It is now *about* three o'clock P.M.
Between.—He arrived *between* four and five o'clock P.M.
During.—I will remain here *during* your pleasure.
Pending.—Nothing more can be done *pending* his arrival.
Till or **until.**—They worked all day *till* sunset.
Within.—This was finished *within* the time fixed.

Note 1.—When one Preposition does not express fully the relation that is intended, two Prepositions can be used with the same object:—

From under.—The seed sprouted *from under* the ground
From among.—One stood out *from among* the rest.
In between.—The mouse crept *in between* the planks.
Into.—He slept late *into* the day.

Note 2.—A preposition may be preceded by an adverb, so as to form a kind of compound preposition :—

Out of.—This was done *out of* jealousy.

As to.—*As to* that matter I will enquire again.

52. **Forms of Object.**—The object to a Preposition is usually a noun or a pronoun. Sometimes, however, an adverb is made the object, sometimes a phrase, and sometimes a sentence :—

This news has come from *afar.* (*Adverb.*)
I bought this for *under-half-its-value.* (*Phrase.*)
This depends on *what-he-promises-to-do.* (*Sentence.*)

53. **Omission of Object.** — This never occurs except when the object, if it were expressed, would be the Relative pronoun, *whom, which, that.*

The man you were looking for has come.

Here the object to " for " is *whom* or *that* understood.

54. **Prepositions in the form of Participles.**—Such words, originally Participles, can now be parsed as prepositions :—

Pending fresh orders. *During* the summer. *Notwithstanding* his anger. All *except* one (all, one being excepted). The hour *past* sunset. *Considering* his age, he did well. *Owing* to this. *According* to that writer. Inform me *concerning, touching,* or *regarding* this matter.

55. **Phrase-prepositions.**—Sometimes a Preposition takes the form of a *phrase,* and not of a *single word.* But a phrase-preposition almost always ends in a Simple preposition.

By means of ; because of ; in front of ; in opposition to ; in spite of ; on account of ; with reference to ; with regard to ; for the sake of ; on behalf of ; instead of ; in lieu of ; in the place of ; in prospect of ; with a view to ; in the event of.

Note.—In the following examples, the phrase has no Simple preposition at the end of it :—

On this side (of) the river. *On board* (of) the ship.

55*a*. **Disguised prepositions,** as in the following examples :—

Fourpence *a* (on) day. I *go a* (on) fishing. One *o'* (of) clock.

CHAPTER VII.—CONJUNCTIONS.

56. A **Conjunction** is a word used for *joining*.[1] It joins—

(1) One word to another word.

(2) One sentence to another sentence.

One Word joined to another Word.

57. When two words are joined together by a Conjunction, they are usually of *the same* or of *a similar* part of speech.

Thus, a noun is joined to a noun or pronoun; a verb to a verb; an adjective to an adjective or participle; an adverb to an adverb or to a phrase which does the work of an adverb; a preposition to a preposition.

The cat slowly *and* silently approaches. James *and* I went away at four o'clock. The horse is lame *as well as* thin. She sat down *and* wept. The bird flew into *and* through a cloud. He returned happy *and* smiling.

He is poor, *but* honest. They are sad, *but* or *but yet* hopeful. Take this book *or* that. Do not walk up, *but* down the hill.

Point out all the parts of speech which are joined together by the Conjunctions in the above sentences.

58. **Correlative** Conjunctions are those which go in pairs.

He is *both* wise *and* good.

He is *neither* wise *nor* good.

Take *either* the one book *or* the other.

The goat was *not only* killed, *but also* eaten.

One Sentence joined to another Sentence.

59. Among those Conjunctions which join one sentence to another sentence, the most common are given in the following examples:—

[1] The difference between Co-ordinative and Subordinative conjunctions, which is somewhat difficult to a beginner, is shown hereafter in Chapter XXV.

First Sentence.	*Conjunction.*	*Second Sentence.*
My father says,	*that*	this book is mine.
I trust his word,	*because*	he speaks the truth.
The boy will come,	*if*	he is allowed to do so.
I wish to know,	**whether*	I am excused or not.
She walked slowly,	*lest*	she should fall down.
He will do this,	*unless*	he is stopped by you.
The boy returned,	*although*	the day was still wet.
You may go out,	*as* or *since*	the rain has now ceased.
He left his bed,	**when*	the sun was seen to rise.
We could not tell,	**whence*	the noise of voices arose.
No one could find out,	**where*	the cow was lying hid.
The mice will play,	*while*	the cat is away.
Can you tell me,	**whither*	he intends to go.
You must wait here,	*until*	your father comes back.
They could not tell,	**why*	they were so heavily fined.
The girl is quick,	*and*	she reads very well.
She went to bed,	*for*	she was feeling quite tired.
He was so badly hurt,	*that*	he died soon after.
I will trust you,	*provided*	you sign your name.
We must believe it,	*since*	you say so.
Pay that debt,	*or*	you will not be trusted.
I wish to know,	**how*	the sick man is to-day.
He will die some day,	**however*	rich he may be.
He closed his house,	*after*	his friends had gone.
He cleaned his house well,	*before*	his friends came.
The girl is clever,	*but*	the boy is a dunce.
He left the house,	*as soon as*	the rain stopped.
He could not pass,	*though*	he tried often.
Your horse is swifter	*than*	mine (is).

Note.—The conjunctions marked with an asterisk, namely, *whether*, *when*, *whence*, *where*, *whither*, *why*, and *how*, are Conjunctive or Relative adverbs (see § 42), *i.e.* partly adverbs and partly conjunctions. Such a word does the work of *two* parts of speech. So far as it *qualifies* the verb of its own sentence by stating the time, place, manner, etc., of the event, it is an **Adverb.** So far as it joins one sentence to another, it is a **Conjunction.**

60. Conjunction and Adverb. — Care must be taken not to confound a Conjunction with an Adverb, or with a

Preposition, or with any other part of speech. There is no fear of any confusion, if the student will ask himself, *What work does the word do in the sentence before him?* If it joins one word or sentence to another word or sentence, it is a Conjunction. If it shows in what relation one thing stands to another thing, or what one thing has to do with another thing, it is a Preposition. If it qualifies some word, it is an Adverb.

Conjunction.	*Preposition, Adverb, etc.*
We will go *after* you have dined.	We will go *after* dinner (*Prep.*).
	He came a few days *after* (*Adv.*).
He went *before* he had dined.	He went away *before* dinner (*Prep.*).
	I have never seen him *before* (*Adv.*).
He is shrewd, *but* unlearned.	All *but* four escaped (*Prep.*).
	There is *but* one present (*Adv.*).
He is *either* a fool or a knave.	He is ruined in *either* case (*Adj.*).
He fled; *else* he would have been caught.	We could do nothing *else* (*Adv.*).
I cannot beg; *for* I am ashamed.	He has been ill *for* a long time (*Prep.*).
Neither you nor I can do that.	I agree with *neither* side (*Adj.*).
Do what you *like*; *only* keep quiet.	I heard of this *only* yesterday (*Adv.*).
	The *only* dog I had was stolen (*Adj.*).
We must trust it, *since* you say so.	I have not been there *since* Sunday last (*Prep.*).
	I took this house four weeks *since* (or *ago*) (*Adv.*).
The time is up; *so* we must go.	Do not walk *so* fast (*Adv.*).
I heard *that* you had come.	The book *that* you gave me is here (*Relative Pron.*).
	The light of the sun is brighter than *that* of the moon (*Demon. Pron.* § 34).
	I am no admirer of *that* book (*Demon. Adj.* § 34).

Conjunction.	*Preposition, Adverb, etc.*
I like this more *than* (I like) that.	No drink other *than* water suited him (*Prep.*).
Wait *till* I return.	Wait here *till* sunset (*Prep.*).
As the sun is up, let us start.	He is not such a man *as* you are (*Rel. Pron.* § 37).

PART II.—VERBS, THEIR INFLECTIONS AND USES.

CHAPTER VIII.—THE KINDS OF VERBS.

61. Three kinds of Verbs.—There are three kinds of verbs,—the Transitive, the Intransitive, and the Auxiliary.

I. **Transitive.** — A Transitive verb denotes an action that is directed towards some person or thing, which is called its object :—

The man *killed* a snake.

Note. — The word "Transitive" means "passing over." Verbs of Class I. are called Transitive, because the action expressed by such a verb as "killed" does not stop with the doer, but *passes* from the doer to some person or thing such as "snake."

II. **Intransitive.** — An Intransitive verb denotes an action that stops with the doer, and concerns no person or thing except the doer :—

Men *sleep* to preserve life.

Sleep what? That is nonsense. No word or words can be placed as object after such a verb as *sleep*. The verb *sleep* is therefore Intransitive.

Note. —An Intransitive verb, which is made Transitive by having a preposition added to it and can be used as such in the Passive voice, is called a **Prepositional verb** :—

We *act-on* this rule. This rule is *acted-on* by us.

The verb *act*, used without a preposition, is Intransitive. We cannot say,—"We *act* this rule."

III. **Auxiliary.**—An Auxiliary verb is one that *helps*

other verbs, Transitive or Intransitive, to form some of their parts. It happens that very few of our tenses and moods are formed by inflection, that is, by a change of inside vowel or by a change of ending. So for forming most tenses and moods verbs require help, and this help is given them by the special class of verbs, which are for this reason called Auxiliary (Latin *auxiliaris*, helpful).

(1) I *have* slept well. (2) He *will* sleep well.

Here the Auxiliary *have* goes with the verb "slept." The two verbs thus joined make a compound tense, which could not have been expressed by any form of the verb "sleep" alone.

Similarly, the Auxiliary *will* goes with the verb "sleep." The two verbs thus joined make a compound tense, which could not have been expressed by any form of the verb "sleep" alone.

62. **Transitive Verbs used Intransitively.**—There are two ways in which Transitive verbs can become Intransitive :—

(*a*) When the verb is used in such a general sense that no object or objects are thought of in connection with it :—

Transitive Verb.	*Intransitive Counterpart.*
He never *eats* meat.	Men *eat* to preserve life.
He *writes* a good letter.	He *writes* legibly.
I *see* a ship coming.	A new-born child *sees*, but a kitten is born blind.

(*b*) When the Reflexive pronoun is omitted :—

He *drew* (himself) near me. He *made* (himself) merry.

The following are common examples of Transitive verbs which have acquired an Intransitive force by omitting the Reflexive pronoun :—

Transitive Verb.	*Intransitive Counterpart.*
Get you (= yourself) gone.	*Get* out of my way.
Give him a penny.	The shoe *gives* after it is worn.
He *obtained* a place.	This doctrine *obtained* (held its ground) for a long time.
The fire *burnt* up the house.	He *burnt* with rage.
Do not *stop* me.	Let us *stop* here a little.
They *open* the doors at nine.	School *opens* at ten o'clock.

Transitive Verb.	*Intransitive Counterpart.*
A man *breaks* stones with a hammer.	The day *breaks* at six.
The ox *drew* this cart.	He *drew* near to me.
Move away this stone.	*Move* on a little faster.
He *broke up* the meeting.	School *broke up* at three.
The mouse *steals* food.	The mouse *steals* into its hole.
They *bathed* the child.	Let us *bathe* here.
He *rolls* a ball down the hill.	The ball *rolls* down the hill.
He *burst* the door open.	The storm has *burst*.
Bad men *hide* their faults.	Bats *hide* during the day.
He *turned* me out of the room.	He *turned* to me and spoke.
They *drop* the boat into the water.	Rain *drops* from the sky.
They *keep* the boat on the left bank.	The boat *keeps* on the left bank.
He *sets* the school in order.	The sun *sets* at six P.M.
He *feeds* the horse on grain.	Many men *feed* on rice.
They *shook* down the fruit.	He *shook* with fear.

62*a*. **Intransitive Verbs used Transitively.**—Intransitive verbs are sometimes used in a **causal** sense. The verb in such a case, though Intransitive by nature, becomes for the time Transitive.

Intransitive.	*Causal or Transitive.*
A bird *flies*.	He is *flying* a kite (causing it to fly).
Wheat *grows* in this field.	They *grow* wheat in this field (cause it to grow).
The horse *ran* round the field.	He *ran* a thorn into his hand.
The horse *trots*.	They *trotted* out the horse.
Let the horse *walk*.	Let us *walk* the horse a little.
The tub is *floating*.	They *floated* the tub on the river.

There are a few Intransitive verbs, which change the inside vowel to denote causation :—

Intransitive.	*Transitive.*
The tree *falls*.	He *fells* the tree with an axe.
The sun will *rise* at six.	I cannot *raise* this box.
The cow *lies* on the grass.	The man *lays* down his coat.
We must not *sit* here.	He *set* the books in order.
He will *fare* well.	He will *ferry* me across.

Intransitive.	*Transitive.*
The enemy *quails.*	He *quells* the enemy.
The fish *bite* well to-day.	I took care to *bait* them well.
His chains *clink* on him.	Help me to *clench* this nail.

63. **Verbs that require a Complement.**—A word or combination of words that supplies what is still needed to complete the sense partially expressed by the verb is called the **Complement** of that verb. The word "complement" means that which fills up a gap. A verb that requires a complement may be either (*a*) Transitive or (*b*) Intransitive.

(*a*) *Transitive verbs.* Such verbs not only take an object, as all transitive verbs do, but require the help of some other word or words to supply what has still to be said about the object. Verbs of making, naming, finding, declaring, considering, supposing, etc., all belong to this class.

Subject.	*Verb.*	*Object.*	*Complement.*
The citizens	made	him	their leader.
The judge	set	the prisoner	free.
They	found	their friend	hard at work.
The jury	declared	the accused	to be innocent.

(*b*) *Intransitive verbs.* Verbs of being, becoming, seeming, turning out, continuing, etc., belong to this class.

Subject.	*Verb.*	*Complement.*
That vagrant	turned out	a thief.
The results	are	out (= published).
This ring	was	of much value.
He	continued	to be very prosperous.
The horse	had become	very tired.

In examples (*a*) the complement is said to be **objective,** because it helps the verb to say something about its object. In examples (*b*) the complement is said to be **subjective,** because it helps the verb to say something about the subject.

Note.—**Complete and Incomplete Predication.**—A verb that makes a complete sense, so that nothing more need be added to it, is called a verb of Complete Predication; as Hogs ***grunt.*** All such verbs are Intransitive.

CHAPTER IX.—THE PARTS OF A FINITE VERB.

64. Finite and non-Finite. — The various different forms that a verb can take are subdivided under two main headings: I. The Finite; II. The non-Finite. The present chapter deals with the Finite only.

Any part of a verb can be called Finite, which is limited or bound to some Subject. The word *Finite* means "limited."

(1) The tree *fell* (Finite). (2) The *falling* tree (non-Finite).

In (1) the verb *fell* is limited to its Subject "tree." In (2) the verb *falling* has no Subject, and therefore it is non-Finite.

On the meaning of the word *Subject* see § 12, *Note*.

65. The Finite moods.—"Mood" is the form assumed by a verb to show the **mode or manner** in which the action denoted by the verb is represented. There are three Finite moods:—

I. Indicative. II. Imperative. III. Subjunctive.

I. In the **Indicative** mood we assert some action as a *fact*, or announce it as a *condition*, or ask some *question* about it:—

He *comes* (fact). If he *comes* (condition).
Did he *come?* (question).

II. In the **Imperative** mood we *command* or *advise* some action or *entreat* some one to do the action:—

Leave the room. (*Command.*)
This is the best course; *follow* it. (*Advice.*)
Help me, if you can. (*Entreaty.*)

In these three examples the Subject "thou" or "you," though not mentioned, is implied.

III. In the **Subjunctive** mood we express some action, not as a fact, but as a *condition* which implies a doubt, or as a *desire*, or as a *purpose*:—

If he *come* (older form) } . . . { (*Condition*
If he *should come* } . . . { *or Supposition.*)
May he *come!* . . . . . (*Desire or wish.*)
He eats that he *may live* . . . (*Purpose.*)

Note.—The Subjunctive mood is sometimes called the "Conditional" mood because condition is the main, though not the only, idea that it expresses. It is called "Subjunctive," because the sentence in which it occurs is generally (not always) subjoined to some other sentence.

66. **Number and Person.**—The number and person of a Finite verb depend upon the *number* and *person* of its Subject:—

Number.
- If the Subject is Singular, the verb must be Singular; as, Rain *is* falling.
- If the Subject is Plural, the verb must be Plural; as, Raindrops *are* falling.

Person.
- If the Subject is in the First person, the verb must be in the First person; as, I see. We come.
- If the Subject is in the Second person, the verb must be in the Second person; as, Thou seest. You see.
- If the Subject is in the Third person, the verb must be in the Third person; as, He sees. They see.

Note.—The agreement of a Finite verb in number and person with its Subject is called a **Concord.**

67. **Tense.**—"Tense" is the form assumed by a verb for showing—(*a*) the *time* in which an event occurs; (*b*) the *degree of completeness* ascribed to an event at the time of its occurrence.

(*a*) Now as regards the question of *time* the verb may tell you—

(1) That an action *is done* in **Present** time; as, He *comes.*
(2) That it *was done* in **Past** time; as, He *came.*
(3) That it *will be done* in **Future** time; as, He *will come.*

(*b*) As regards the question of *completeness,* there are four different degrees, which give rise to four different forms of Present, Past, and Future time:—

I. **Indefinite**; which denotes Present, Past, or Future

time in its simplest form, the degree of completeness being left indefinite ; as, *I see, I saw, I shall see.*

II. **Continuous ;** which denotes that the event (in Present, Past, or Future time) is still *continuing,* or not yet complete ; as, *I am seeing, I was seeing, I shall be seeing.* (This is sometimes called the Imperfect form of tense.)

III. **Perfect ;** which denotes that the event (in Present, Past, or Future time) is in a completed or *perfect* state ; as, *I have seen, I had seen, I shall have seen.*

IV. **Perfect Continuous ;** which combines the force of the two preceding forms ; as, *I have been seeing, I had been seeing, I shall have been seeing.*

68. **Voice** is that form of a verb which shows whether what is named by the Subject *does* something or *has* something *done* to it.

In the **Active** voice the person or thing denoted by the Subject is said *to do* something to some other person or thing. (The word *active* from Latin *ag*-o, *ac*-tum, means "doing.")

Tom *threw* a ball.

In the **Passive** voice the person or thing denoted by the Subject is said to *suffer* something from some other person or thing. (The word *passive* from Latin *pat*-ior, *pass*-us, means "suffering.")

A ball *was thrown* by Tom.

Note 1.—It will be seen from these examples that when the verb of a sentence is changed from Active to Passive, the object of the Active verb becomes the subject of the Passive one.

Note 2.—An **Intransitive** verb has no Passive voice, unless it takes a Cognate object (§ 95) in the Active. Even then the Passive can be used only in the third person :—"I ran a race" ; "a race was run by me."

69. **Conjugation of the Finite moods.** — The conjugation of a verb in the Finite moods, Active and Passive, is shown in the following tables. It will be observed that the only tenses formed by inflection, that is, without the help of Auxiliary verbs, are the Present and Past Indefinite, and these only in the Active voice.

A. Active Voice of Do.

I.—*Indicative Mood.*

Tense.		Singular. 1st Person.	Singular. 2nd Person.	Singular. 3rd Person.	Plural. 1st, 2nd, 3rd Persons.
Present	*Indefinite*	do	doest or dost [1]	does	do
	Continuous	am doing	art doing	is doing	are doing
	Perfect	have done	hast done	has done	have done
	Perf. Cont.	have been doing	hast been doing	has been doing	have been doing
Past	*Indefinite*	did	didst	did	did
	Continuous	was doing	wast doing	was doing	were doing
	Perfect	had done	hadst done	had done	had done
	Perf. Cont.	had been doing	hadst been doing	had been doing	had been doing
Future	*Indefinite*	shall do	wilt do	will do	1. shall / 2, 3. will } do
	Continuous	shall be doing	wilt be doing	will be doing	1. shall / 2, 3. will } be doing
	Perfect	shall have done	wilt have done	will have done	1. shall / 2, 3. will } have done
	Perf. Cont.	shall have been doing	wilt have been doing	will have been doing	1, shall / 2, 3. will } have been doing

[1] *Dost* is used only when the verb is Auxiliary; as "Thou *dost* arise."

II.—*Subjunctive Mood.*

Tense.		Singular. 1st Person.	Singular. 2nd Person.	Singular. 3rd Person.	Plural. 1st, 2nd, 3rd Persons.
Present	*Indefinite*	do	do	do	do
	Continuous	be doing	be doing	be doing	be doing
	Perfect	have done	have done	have done	have done
	Perf. Cont.	have been doing	have been doing	have been doing	have been doing
Past	*Indefinite*	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)
	Continuous	were doing	wert doing	were doing	were doing
	Perfect	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)
	Perf. Cont.	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)
Future	*Indefinite*	should do	wouldst do	would do	1. should / 2, 3. would } do
	Continuous	should be doing	wouldst be doing	would be doing	1, should / 2, 3. would } be doing
	Perfect	should have done	wouldst have done	would have done	1. should / 2, 3. would } have done
	Perf. Cont.	should have been doing	wouldst have been doing	would have been doing	1. should / 2, 3. would } have been doing

B. Passive Voice of See.

This, if we omit the Past Participle "seen," gives a complete conjugation of the Finite forms of the verb "*to be.*"

I.—*Indicative Mood.*

Tense.		Singular. 1st Person.	Singular. 2nd Person.	Singular. 3rd Person.	Plural. 1st, 2nd, 3rd Persons.
Present	*Indefinite*	am seen	art seen	is seen	are seen
	Continuous	am being seen	art being seen	is being seen	are being seen
	Perfect	have been seen	hast been seen	has been seen	have been seen
	Perf. Cont.	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)
Past	*Indefinite*	was seen	wast seen	was seen	were seen
	Continuous	was being seen	wast being seen	was being seen	were being seen
	Perfect	had been seen	hadst been seen	had been seen	had been seen
	Perf. Cont.	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)
Future	*Indefinite*	shall be seen	wilt be seen	will be seen	1. shall) be 2, 3. will) seen
	Continuous	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)
	Perfect	shall have been seen	wilt have been seen	will have been seen	1. shall) have 2, 3. will) been seen
	Perf. Cont.	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)

II.—*Subjunctive Mood.*

Tense.		Singular. 1st Person.	Singular. 2nd Person.	Singular. 3rd Person.	Plural. 1st, 2nd, 3rd Persons.
Present	*Indefinite*	be seen	be seen	be seen	be seen
	Continuous	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)
	Perfect	have been seen	have been seen	have been seen	have been seen
	Perf. Cont.	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)
Past	*Indefinite*	were seen	wert seen	were seen	were seen
	Continuous	were being seen	wert being seen	were being seen	were being seen
	Perfect	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)	(*Same as Indic.*)
	Perf. Cont.	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)
Future	*Indefinite*	should be seen	wouldst be seen	would be seen	1. should } be 2, 3. would } seen
	Continuous	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)
	Perfect	should have been seen	wouldst have been seen	would have been seen	1. should } have 2, 3. would } been seen
	Perf. Cont.	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)	(*None*)

Exercise 9.

Point out the Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person of every Finite verb noted below :—

1. *Come* and *tell* me what you *have heard*. 2. If you *should be* at home when I *call* at your house, I *shall be* glad. 3. He *came* to my house at four o'clock in the afternoon. 4. You *will be killed*, if that stone *falls* upon your head. 5. Why *were* these books *brought* to me ? 6. My father *will* not *return* for some time. 7. If he *should return* to-morrow, I *should be* much *surprised*. 8. *Will* you *come* soon to see me ? 9. He *told* them to call for him at four o'clock. 10. *Put* away the books, and *shut* the door of the room. 11. The cow *is* a quiet and useful animal. 12. Oxen *draw* the plough. 13. I *see* four men coming. 14. They *see* the sun rising. 15. We *see* the hills in the distance. 16. Thou *art* the wisest man in the room. 17. The horse *carries* its rider. 18. That the horse *is* lame *is seen* by all of us. 19. How to do this *was* not *understood*.

Exercise 10.

(*a*) *Change the following sentences from the Active voice to the Passive :—*

1. A cat chased a mouse, and a dog chased the cat. 2. He brought six apples for me. 3. The lower animals do not need tools. 4. But they possess limbs as useful to them as tools. 5. Man alone knows how to make tools. 6. God has given no such mind to other animals. 7. We must find out the reasons of things. 8. This king conquered that. 9. Who made you and all the world ?

(*b*) *Change the following sentences from Passive to Active:—*

1. The shops are closed by all the dealers. 2. This book was brought here by my servant. 3. The roof of the house was blown off by the wind. 4. The ripening wheat was destroyed by a storm of hail. 5. The soil of the earth is made fertile by rain. 6. That fine tree was split by lightning. 7. The walls of the house were cracked by an earthquake in several places. 8. The men were ordered by the king's messengers to go away. 9. Four men must be sent by us to the market. 10. How to spell, read, and write is known by man alone. 11. His death was bewailed by all of us.

69*a*. Verbs Active in form, but Passive in sense.—(*a*) Transitive verbs in the Active voice are sometimes used in a Passive sense, with an adjective or other word placed after them as complement.

The stone *feels* rough (is rough when it is felt).
Honey *tastes* sweet (is sweet when it is tasted).
The milk *smells* sour (is sour when it is smelt).
Your blame *counts* for nothing (is worth nothing when its value is counted).
Your letter *reads* well (sounds well when it is read).
That cloth will *wear* thin (become thin when it is worn).

(*b*) In the above examples every verb has an adjective or other word placed immediately after it as complement. But Transitive verbs in the Active voice can sometimes be used in a Passive sense even when there is no other word placed after them as complement.

This house *does* not *let* (is not taken when it is meant to be let).
That horse *does* not *sell* (is not bought when it is meant to be sold).

(*c*) Verbs in a Continuous form of tense, Active voice, are often used in a Passive sense.

The house *is building* (is being built).
The trumpets *are blowing* (are being blown).
The drums *are beating* (are being beaten).
The book is *printing* (is being printed).

Note.—As regards the examples shown under (*c*) we are *now* obliged to parse the verb as being in the Present Continuous tense, because it can be qualified by an adverb: "The house is *rapidly* building." Originally, however, the construction was "The house is a-building," or "The house is in building." Here "building" is a gerund or verbal noun, preceded by the preposition *in*, which was carelessly pronounced as *a* and finally dropped altogether.

69*b*. Uses of some of the Tenses.—Something has yet to be said about the main uses of some of the tenses in the Indicative mood. The main uses of the Imperative and the Subjunctive have been described already in § 65.

(*a*) *The Present Indefinite.*—This tense can be used to denote—

(1) What is always and necessarily true :—

The sun *shines* by day and the moon by night.

(2) What is habitual in life or character :—

He *keeps* his promises. He *has* good health.

(3) What is present, if this is helped by the context :—

I *understand* what you say. The door *is* open.

(4) What is future, if this is helped by the context :—

When *do* you (= will you) start for York ?

(5) What is past, provided that the event is known to be past. (This is called the Historic or Graphic Present.)

The Moghul now *leads* his men through the Khyber Pass, and *enters* the plains of India.

(*b*) *The Present Perfect.*—This tense connects a *past* event in some sense or other with *present* time :—

The British empire in India *has* succeeded to the Moghul.

Observe the force of *has*. It implies that the British empire not only succeeded to the Moghul as an event of past history, but that it is the living successor to this day.

(*c*) *The Past Perfect.*—This tense (called also the Pluperfect) is never used, except when we wish to say that some action was either completed or supposed to have been completed, before another was commenced :—

I *had been* ill two days, when the doctor came. (*Fact.*)

If I *had seen* him, I should have known him. (*Supposition.*)

(*d*) *The Future Perfect.*—This tense denotes the completion of some event either in Future time or in Past time.

You *will have arrived* before the rain sets in. (*Future.*)

You *will have heard* the news ; so I need not tell you. (*Past.*)

It seems like a contradiction to make a Future tense have reference to anything Past. But the future tense here implies an inference. *You will have heard* means " I infer or believe that you have heard."

(*e*) *Shall and Will* in *Future Tenses.*—The uses of *shall* and *will* are explained below in § 80.

CHAPTER X.—PARTS OF A VERB THAT ARE NOT FINITE.

70. Non-Finite parts of a Verb.—Any part of a verb which is not connected, and from the nature of its meaning cannot be connected, with a *Subject*, comes under the heading of non-Finite (§ 64).

The non-Finite parts of a verb are three in number :— (1) the **In-fin-i-tive** mood ; as, "I wish *to retire*" ; (2) a **Par-ti-cip-le** ; as, "A *retired* officer" ; (3) a **Gerund** ; as, "I think of *retiring*." Not one of the three forms here noted can have a noun or pronoun placed before it as Subject, and hence not one of them is a Finite part of the verb "retire."

71. Infinitive.—The Infinitive mood is that part of the verb which names the action without reference to any doer. It may denote either Present or Past time :—

Tense.		*Active.*	*Passive.*
Present	*Indefinite*	To send	To be sent.
	Continuous	To be sending	(*None.*)
Past	*Perfect*	To have sent	To have been sent.
	Perf. Contin.	To have been sending	(*None.*)

The Infinitive is usually preceded by "*to*," but not always. "*To*" is not used after the verbs *hear, see, feel, make, let, bid, watch, behold, know* ; nor after the Auxiliary verbs *shall, will, may, do* ; nor after the verbs *must, can* ; nor after the negative forms *need not, dare not* :—

I hear thee *speak* of the better land.
You need not *send* these books to me.
I do *hope* that you will *return* soon.
Let me *see* what you have done.

Note 1.—Observe the last example "let me *see*." Here *let* is the second person Imperative—the only person which can be expressed by a verb in the Imperative mood. To express the first or third person, we use the verb "let" in such forms as "let *me* see," "let *him* see." In all such examples "see" is in the Infinitive mood.

Note 2.—A full account of the uses of the Infinitive is given in Chapter XX. This can be studied afterwards.

72. Participle.—A Participle (when it is not part of a tense) is a Verbal adjective, that adds to the meaning of some noun or pronoun as ordinary adjectives do. It may denote either Present or Continuous or Past time :—

		Active voice.	*Passive voice.*
Present or Continuous		Loving	Being loved.
Past	*Indefinite*	(*None*)	Loved.
	Perfect	Having loved	Having been loved.

Note.—The form *loving* stands for both Present and Continuous time. These are not the same in meaning :—

(*a*) *Hearing* this he was much surprised . (*Present.*)
(*b*) He went away *sorrowing* . . . (*Contin.*)

In (*a*) the action denoted by *hearing* is completed. In (*b*) the action denoted by *sorrowing* is continuous.

We have no form of Participle to express *Future* time. This is expressed by the Infinitive ; as, "The world *to come*." To express a near Future, we add the words *about* or *going* to the Infinitive :—

The house is *about to fall.*
The house is *going to fall.*

We may express a very near Future by the following phrase :—

The house is *on the point of falling.*

73. Double Character of Participles.—A Participle is in one respect a verb, in another an adjective :—

(*a*) It is a verb, because (if the verb is Transitive) it can be followed (like a Finite tense) by an object :—

Having eaten *his dinner,* he returned to work.

(*b*) It is an adjective or like an adjective, because (1) it can have degrees of Comparison as ordinary adjectives have ; and (2) it is connected with some noun or pronoun, as ordinary adjectives are :—

(1) Faded (*Positive*); more faded (*Comp.*); most faded (*Superl.*).
(2) *Having eaten* his dinner, *he* returned to work.

Note.—Such words are called participles, because they *participate* in the nature of verbs and also in the nature of adjectives.

Exercise 11.

Pick out every Infinitive and every Participle in the following sentences, and say what time it denotes :—

1. I saw him take aim with his bow. 2. Being tired of work the men went home. 3. I feel the cold air strike against my face. 4. The returned soldier was received gladly by his parents. 5. Grazing in the fresh grass, the lambs soon became strong. 6. To stay awake at night is bad for health. 7. A vicious and kicking horse gives much trouble to its master. 8. He dared not say this in open day. 9. Pleased at seeing me return, he made me come and sit by his side. 10. I have often known him laugh for nothing. 11. The boy that you see there painting a picture is my brother. 12. My wife, expecting me to return shortly, did not leave the house. 13. A man-eating tiger must be shot at once, if you can do it. 14. I was told that I might go away, and so I went. 15. He hears his daughter singing a new song. 16. The days of our youth are passed, never to return to us again.

74. Gerund.—A Gerund is a kind of noun which names the action or state denoted by the verb. It has four forms, —two for the Active voice, and two for the Passive :—

	Active.	*Passive.*
Present or Continuous	Loving	Being loved.
Past	Having loved	Having been loved.

The *forms*, then, are identical with those of the Participle ; but their *use* is entirely different. A Gerund is a kind of *noun* ; a Participle is a kind of *adjective*.

Exercise 12.

In the following sentences, say whether the words noted below are Gerunds or Participles :—

1. The oats will grow well in the *coming* rains. 2. We heard of his *coming* back to-day. 3. Did you hear of his *having won* a prize ? 4. The boy, *having won* a prize, was much praised. 5. She was fond of *being admired*. 6. *Being admired* by all, she was much pleased. 7. The cow, *having been killed* by a tiger yesterday, could not be found. 8. The boy was ashamed of *having been beaten* in class by his sister. 9. I am tired of *doing* this work. 10. *Doing* this work every day, you will soon improve.

11. *Spelling* is more difficult than *writing*. 12. He was in the habit of *boasting* of his cleverness. 13. A *boasting* man is much despised. 14. He was pleased at *having found* his son. 15. *Having found* his son, he was very much pleased. 16. Foxes do not enjoy *being hunted*, but men enjoy *hunting* them. 17. The fox *being hunted* fled into its hole.

75. **Double Character of Gerunds.**—A Gerund is in one respect a verb, in another a noun :—

(*a*) It is a noun, because it has all the uses of a noun ; for it can be the Subject, Object, or Complement to a verb, or the Object to a preposition :—

Spelling is more difficult than writing . . (*Subject to verb.*)
He teaches *spelling* with much success . . (*Object to verb.*)
The hardest thing to learn is *spelling* . . (*Compl. to verb.*)
He is very clever at *spelling* English words . (*Obj. to prep.*)

(*b*) It is a verb, because it can express Present or Past time, and can be in the Active or Passive voice (for examples see § 74). Moreover, if the verb is Transitive, it requires an Object in the same way that the Finite forms of the verb do :—

He made two mistakes in spelling *that word*.

Here "word" is the Object to the verb "spelling."

75*a*. **Verbal Noun.**—If we place *of* after "spelling," and an article before it, then "spelling" is a pure noun, and not a verb at all. To distinguish this from a Gerund we call it a **Verbal Noun**. A verbal noun has no past or passive forms, as a Gerund has.

He made two mistakes in *the* spelling *of* that word.

Here "spelling" is a pure noun, and "that word" is not the Object of "spelling," but of the preposition "of."

CHAPTER XI.—STRONG AND WEAK VERBS.

76. Verbs are distinguished into **Strong** and **Weak** according to the manner in which they form the Past tense and the Past participle. (Sometimes, but with less propriety, Strong verbs are called Irregular, and Weak verbs Regular.)

I. *How to tell a Weak verb from a Strong :—*

(*a*) All verbs, whose Past tense ends in a *-d* or *-t*, which is not in the Present tense, are Weak :—

Live, live-*d*. Fan, fann-*ed*. Carry, carri-*ed*. Plunge, plunge-*d*. Sleep, slep-*t*. Burn, burn-*t*. Shoe, sho-*d*. Flee, fle-*d*. Pay, pai-*d*. Bend, ben-*t*. Build, buil-*t*. Send, sen-*t*. Gird, gir-*t* or gird-*ed*. Think, though-*t*. Work, wrough-*t*. Sell, sol-*d*. Owe, ough-*t* or owe-*d*.

(*b*) All verbs, whose Past tense is formed by *shortening* the vowel of the Present tense, are Weak :—

Bleed, bled. Shoot, shot. Lead, led. Light, lit or light-*ed*.

(*c*) All verbs, whose Past tense is the same as the Present, are Weak :—

Cut, cut. Hurt, hurt. Put, put. Rid, rid. Spread, spread.

II. *How to tell a Strong verb from a Weak :—*

(*a*) All verbs, which form the Past tense by *changing* (not merely shortening) the inside vowel, and do *not* add on a final *-d* or *-t*, are Strong :—

Fight, fought : (but "buy, bough-*t*" is Weak, because, after changing the inside vowel, it adds a final *-t*). Hold, held. Stand, stood. Sit, sat. Find, found. Drive, drove.

(*b*) All verbs, which form the Past participle in *-en* or *-n*, are either wholly or partly Strong :—

Wholly.—Draw, drew, draw-*n*. Shake, shook, shake-*n*. Slay, slew, slai-*n*.

Partly.—Saw, saw-*ed*, saw-*n*. Cleave, clef-*t*, clov-*en*. Lade, lade-*d*, lade-*n*.

Observe that the verbs in the last two lines are Weak in the Past tense and Strong in the Past participle. These might very properly be classed as "Mixed," partly Weak and partly Strong.

77. **Lists of Strong Verbs.**—Though we have many Strong verbs still left, yet the Strong conjugation is practically obsolete, because (1) no *new* verbs (*i.e.* verbs imported into English from any foreign source) have ever been so conjugated, (2) many verbs that were once Strong have become Weak.

Group I. (50 *verbs*).—Final *-n* or *-en* retained in Past Participle.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*	*Present Tense.*	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*
Arise	arose	arisen	Grow	grew	grown
Bear (produce)	bore	born	Hide	hid	*hidden, hid
Bear (carry)	bore	borne	Know	knew	known
Beget	begot, begat	begotten, begot	Lie	lay	lain
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid	Ride	rode	ridden
Bind	bound	*bounden, bound	Rise	rose	risen
Bite	bit	bitten, bit	See	saw	seen
Blow	blew	blown	Shake	shook	shaken
Break	broke	broken	Shrink	shrank	*shrunken, shrunk
Chide	chid	chidden, chid	Sink	sank	*sunken, sunk
Choose	chose	chosen	Slay	slew	slain
Draw	drew	drawn	Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Drink	drank,	*drunken, drunk	Smite	smote	smitten, smit
Drive	drove, drave	driven	Speak	spoke	spoken
Eat	ate	eaten	Steal	stole	stolen
Fall	fell	fallen	Stride	strode	stridden
Fly	flew	flown	Strike	struck	*stricken, struck
Forbear	forbore	forborne	Strive	strove	striven
Forget	forgot	forgotten	Swear	swore	sworn
Forsake	forsook	forsaken	Take	took	taken
Freeze	froze	frozen	Tear	tore	torn
Get	got	*gotten, got	Throw	threw	thrown
Give	gave	given	Tread	trod	trodden, trod
Go, wend	went	gone	Wear	wore	worn
			Weave	wove	woven
			Write	wrote	written

Note.—The seven participles marked * are now chiefly used as adjectives, and not as parts of a tense :—

Adjective.	*Part of some Tense.*
Our *bounden* duty.	He *was bound* by his promise.
A *drunken* man.	He *had drunk* much wine.
A *sunken* ship.	The ship *had sunk* under the water.
A *stricken* deer.	The deer *was struck* with an arrow.
The *shrunken* stream.	The stream *has shrunk* in its bed.
Ill-*gotten* wealth.	He *got* his wealth by ill means.
A *hidden* meaning.	The meaning *is hid* or *hidden*.

Group II. (32 *verbs*).—Final *-n* or *-en* lost in Past Participle.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*	*Present Tense.*	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*
Abide	abode	abode	Sing	sang	sung
Awake	awoke [1]	awoke [1]	Sit	sat	sat
Become	became	become	Sling	slung	slung
Begin	began	begun	Slink	slunk	slunk
Behold	beheld	beheld, beholden [2]	Spin	spun	spun
			Spring	sprang	sprung
Cling	clung	clung	Stand	stood	stood
Come	came	come	Stick	stuck	stuck
Dig	dug	dug	Sting	stung	stung
Fight	fought	fought	Stink	stank	stunk
Find	found	found	String	strung	strung
Fling	flung	flung	Swim	swam	swum
Grind	ground	ground	Swing	swung	swung
Hold	held	held	Win	won	won
Ring	rang	rung	Wind	wound	wound
Run	ran	run	Wring	wrung	wrung
Shine	shone	shone			

Group III.—Mixed or Strong-Weak Verbs (29 *in number*).

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Beat	beat	beaten
Cleave (split)	clave, cleft	*cloven, cleft
Climb	clomb, climbed	climbed
Crow	crew, crowed	crowed, crown (rare)
Do	did	done
Grave	graved	*graven, graved

[1] *Awaked* is less common. *Awake* is Intransitive. The Transitive form of the verb is *awaken*

[2] "Beholden" means "indebted."

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Hang [1]	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
Heave	heaved, hove	heaved, hove
Hew	hewed	*hewn, hewed
Lade	laded	laden
Melt	melted	*molten, melted
Mow	mowed	mown
Prove	proved	†proven, proved
Rive	rived	riven
Rot	rotted	*rotten, rotted
Saw	sawed	sawn
Seethe	seethed	*sodden, seethed
Sew	sewed	*sewn, sewed
Shape	shaped	†shapen, shaped
Shave	shaved	shaven
Shear	sheared	*shorn, sheared
Show	showed	shown
Sow	sowed	sown
Stave	stove, staved	stove, staved
Strew	strewed	strewn or strown
Swell	swelled	swollen
Thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived
Wash	washed	*washen, washed
Writhe	writhed	†writhen, writhed

Note 1.—The participles marked * are now chiefly used as adjectives, and not as parts of a tense :—

Adjective.	*Part of some Tense.*
A *graven* image.	The image *was engraved* with letters.
A *molten* image.	The image *was melted* with heat.
A *rotten* plank.	The plank *was rotted* by water.
The *sodden* flesh.	The flesh *was seethed* in hot water.
A well-*sewn* cloth.	I *have sewed* or *sewn* it.
Un-*washen* hands.	I *have washed* my hands.
A *shorn* lamb.	The lamb *was sheared* to-day.
A *hewn* log.	The log *is hewed* or *hewn*.

Note 2.—The participles marked † are almost obsolete.

[1] The Intransitive verb is conjugated in the Strong form only. The Transitive verb is conjugated in both forms. *Hanged* means "killed by hanging"; as, "The man was *hanged*." *Hung* is used in a general sense; as, "He *hung* up his coat."

78. Lists of Weak Verbs.—The mode of adding the suffix of the Past tense is not uniform; and the two rules given below should be observed:—

(1) If the verb ends in *e*, then *d* only is added; as—

Live, lived (not *liveed*).
Clothe, clothed (not *clotheed*).

To this rule there is no exception.

(2) The final consonant is doubled before *ed*, provided (*a*) that the final consonant is *single*; (*b*) that it is *accented* or *monosyllabic*; (*c*) that it is preceded by a *single vowel*; as—

Fan, fanned (not *faned*); *drop, dropped* (not *droped*).
Compel, compelled; *control, controlled*; *confer, conferred*.

But in a verb like *lengthen*, where the accent is not on the last syllable, the Past tense is *lengthened*; in a verb like *boil*, where the vowel is not single, the Past tense is *boiled*; and in a verb like *fold*, where the last consonant is not single, the Past tense is *folded*.

To this rule there are very few exceptions. One exception occurs in the final *l*. The final *l* is doubled, even when it is not accented; as, travel, trav*elled* (not trav*eled*).

Group I.—Shortening of Inside Vowel: Past tense in t.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*	*Present Tense.*	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*
Creep	crept	crept	Feel	felt	felt
Sleep	slept	slept	Kneel	knelt	knelt
Sweep	swept	swept	Smell	smelt	smelt
Keep	kept	kept	Spell	spelt	spelt
Weep	wept	wept	Lean	lĕant	lĕant
Burn	burnt	burnt		or leaned	or leaned
Deal	dĕalt	dĕalt	Mean	mĕant	mĕant
Dream	drĕamt	drĕamt	Spill	spilt	spilt
	or dreamed	or dreamed	Spoil	spoilt	spoilt
Dwell	dwelt	dwelt		or spoiled	or spoiled

Exceptional Verbs.—Make, made, made. Have, had, had. Hear, heard, heard. Leave, left, left. Cleave, cleft, cleft. Lose, lost, lost. Shoe, shod, shod. Flee, fled, fled. Say, said, said. Lay, laid, laid. Pay, paid, paid. Clothe, clothed or clad, clothed or clad.

Group II.—Changing of Inside Vowel.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*	*Present Tense.*	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*
Beseech	besought	besought	Work	wrought, or worked	wrought, or worked
Bring	brought	brought			
Buy	bought	bought	Owe	ought or owed	owed
Catch	caught	caught			
Seek	sought	sought	Dare	durst or dared	dared
Sell	sold	sold			
Teach	taught	taught	Can	could	(*None*)
Tell	told	told	Shall	should	(*None*)
Think	thought	thought	Will	would	(*None*)
			May	might	(*None*)

Group III.—Verbs ending in **d** *or* **t.**

Verbs ending in *d* or *t* in the Present tense have discarded the *d* or *t* of the Past tense, to avoid the repetition of *d* or *t*.

(*a*) Some verbs in this group have the three forms (Present tense, Past tense, and Past Participle) all exactly alike :—

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*	*Present Tense.*	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*
Burst	burst	burst	Shut	shut	shut
Cast	cast	cast	Slit	slit	slit
Cost	cost	cost	Spit	spit or spat	spit
Cut	cut	cut	Split	split	split
Hit	hit	hit	Spread	spread	spread
Hurt	hurt	hurt	Sweat	sweat	sweat
Let	let	let	Thrust	thrust	thrust
Put	put	put	Bet	bet	bet
Rid	rid	rid	Quit	quit or quitted	quit or quitted
Set	set	set			
Shed	shed	shed	Knit	knit or knitted	knit or knitted
Shred	shred	shred			

Note.—"Spit" is a Weak verb, although it has a form *spat* for the Past tense. In Anglo-Saxon the Present also had two forms.

(*b*) Other verbs in this group end in *d* in the Present tense, but form the Past tense and Past Participle by

changing *d* into *t*. (There are at least nine such verbs in English.)

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*	*Present Tense.*	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*
Bend	bent	bent, bended	Rend	rent	rent
Build	built	built	Send	sent	sent
Gild	gilt, gilded	gilt	Spend	spent	spent
Gird	girt, girded	girt	Wend	went	(*None*)
Lend	lent	lent			

Exceptions:—end-ed, mend-ed, blend-ed or blent, defend-ed.

(*c*) Other verbs of this group have the three forms all alike, except that they shorten the vowel in the Past forms:—

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*	*Present Tense.*	*Past Tense.*	*Past Part.*
Bleed	bled	bled	Lead	led	led
Breed	bred	bred	Read	read	read
Feed	fed	fed	Light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted
Speed	sped	sped	Shoot	shot	shot
Meet	met	met			

Exercise 13.

In the following sentences say whether the verb italicised is Strong, Weak, or Mixed:—

1. The ox *fell* into a well. 2. The bubble *burst* as soon as it *was pricked*. 3. We *sought* for him in vain. 4. I *felt* very sorry, when I *heard* that. 5. He *meant* everything that he *said*. 6. The lawn *has been* well *mown*. 7. The cock *crew* at four o'clock. 8. The prisoners *fled* as soon as the door of the jail *was thrust* open. 9. You *could* not *do* that, if you *tried*. 10. A *shorn* lamb *feels* a cold wind. 11. Who *steals* my purse *steals* trash.—SHAKESPEARE. 12. The evil that men *do lives* after them; the good *is* oft *interred* with their bones.—SHAKESPEARE. 13. The wind *blows* cold and fresh from the tops of hills. 14. Never *forget* a kindness. 15. *Owe* no man anything.—*New Test.* 16. *Know* then thyself, and *seek* not God to *scan*.—POPE. 17. What I *have written* I have written.—*New Test.* 18. Solomon *built* him an house.—*New Test.* 19. There is a *hidden* meaning

in his words. 20. *Stick* to your point. 21. *Abide* with us; fast *falls* the eventide.—KEBLE. 22. I have *fought* a good fight; I have *kept* the faith.—*New Test.* 23. Men will *reap* as they *sow*. 24. Hope *springs* eternal in the human breast.—POPE. 25. On whomsoever it *shall fall*, it will *grind* him to powder.—*New Test.* 26. There's a divinity that *shapes* our ends, rough *hew* them how we *will*.—SHAKESPEARE.

CHAPTER XII.—AUXILIARY VERBS.

79. Six Auxiliary Verbs.—The Auxiliary verbs are *have, be, shall, will, may, do.* None but these six are rightly called Auxiliary, because none but these are used for *helping other verbs to form those tenses, which cannot be formed by inflection.*

(*a*) Observe that **have** and **be**, when these verbs are used for Auxiliary purposes, are always followed by Participles :—

I have *seen.* I had *seen.* I am *seeing.* I was *seeing.*

(*b*) Observe that the other four, when they are used for Auxiliary purposes, are always followed by an Infinitive, and that the Infinitive is never preceded by "to" :

I shall *go.* He will *go.* May he *go*! I did not *go.*

The verb that is helped by an Auxiliary, as *seen* or *seeing* in (*a*) and *go* in (*b*), is called the **Principal** verb.

Note 1.—Auxiliary verbs not only assist Principal verbs, but they assist one another :—

I *shall have been* going. (*Future Perfect Continuous.*)

Here *shall* (which by rule (*b*) is followed by an Infinitive) helps *have*. *Have* (which by rule (*a*) is followed by a Participle) helps *been*. *Been* (which by rule (*a*) is followed by a Participle) helps the Principal verb *going*. Thus to form a Future Perfect Continuous tense three Auxiliary verbs are needed.

Note 2.—A Principal verb is sometimes called "Notional" because it has an independent meaning of its own. It expresses a complete *notion* or thought.

79*a*. **Be.**—This verb has three distinct uses :—

(1) As an *Auxiliary* verb. All tenses in the Passive voice and all Continuous tenses in the Active are formed with the help of this Auxiliary.

I *am* sent ; I *was* sent. I *am* sending ; I *was* sending.

(2) As a *Copulative* verb. The verb *to be* is said to be Copulative, when it couples or combines a noun or other kind of Complement with its Subject.

I *was* absent. They *were* at home. That man *is* a thief

(3) As a *Principal* verb signifying existence.

The world *is* (exists). There *are* (exist) some who, etc.

79*b*. **Have.**—This verb has two distinct uses :—

(1) As a *Transitive* verb denoting possession and declined in all moods and tenses.

I *have* a dog. They *will have* a book.

(2) As an *Auxiliary* verb. All the Perfect tenses, in all the Moods, Active and Passive, are formed with the help of this Auxiliary.

80. **Shall, will.**—These are the Auxiliaries used for forming the Future tense ; for this tense cannot be formed by inflection, as the Present and Past can.

Take note that the Future tense is formed with **shall** in the *First* person, and with **will** in the *Second* and *Third* persons.

	1	2	3
Singular	I *shall* go.	Thou *wilt* go.	He *will* go.
Plural	We *shall* go.	You *will* go.	They *will* go.

If *will* is used in the First person, as " I *will* go," it expresses not merely future time, but intention. Thus " I *will* go " means " I intend to go." Here *will* is a Principal verb (not an Auxiliary), since it expresses a great deal more than future time and is equivalent to the verb " intend."

If *shall* is used in the Second or Third person, as " You *shall* go," " He *shall* go," it expresses not merely future time, but an order or a promise or a threat or a very confident prediction. Here *shall* is a Principal verb, not an Auxiliary, since it expresses a great deal more than future time.

81. May, might; should, would.—These are the Auxiliaries used for forming the various tenses and expressing the various uses of the Subjunctive mood.

May and *might* are used to express a purpose. If the verb going before is in the Present or Future Indicative, we use *may* to express the Subjunctive. If the verb going before is in the Past Indicative, we use *might* to express the Subjunctive :—

He *has worked* hard (Present)
He *will work* hard (Future) } that he *may* win a prize.
He *worked* hard (Past) that he *might* win a prize.

May is also used to express a wish or prayer—

May he live long and see not the grave !

Should and *would* (the Past forms of *shall* and *will*) are used to express a condition and its consequence :—

Condition.	*Consequence.*
If he *should* meet me,	he *would* know me.

82. Do, did.—These auxiliaries are used for forming the Present and Past tenses (Indefinite) of a Principal verb in the Indicative mood, whenever the Principal verb is used either (1) with a Negative, or (2) for asking a question :—

I *do* not see this. *Did* he see it ?

The verb " *do* " is also used for forming the Imperative of a Principal verb, whenever the Principal verb is used with a Negative :—

Do not come. *Do* not ask me any questions.

83. Auxiliary and Principal.—The verbs *may*, *do*, like the verbs *have*, *be*, *shall*, and *will*, are sometimes Auxiliary and sometimes Principal verbs :—

Auxiliary.	*Principal.*
I *have* come.	I *have* (possess) a watch.
He *was* praised.	The earth *is* round.
He eats that he *may* live.	He *may* (is permitted to) go away.
He *did* not go.	He *did* (performed) his work well.
If he *should* come.	He *should* (ought to) keep his word.

Exercise 14.

In the following sentences say whether the verb italicised is Principal or Auxiliary :—

1. I *had* a fine horse to show him ; but he *had* gone away and could not see it. 2. That horse of yours *is* a fine creature, and *is* admired by every one who *has* seen it. 3. You *shall* leave the room, if you *do* not leave off making that noise. 4. Why *did* you refuse to speak ? 5. You *may* read that book, if you wish to *do* so ; but *do* not ask me to lend you another. 6. If you take a man's life, you *shall* be hanged. 7. Thou *shalt* not steal. 8. He *shall* receive his prize to-morrow, and I hope that all *will* be satisfied. 9. The spirit of my father grows strong in me, and I *will* no longer endure it. 10. Charles, I thank thee for thy love to me, which thou *shalt* find I *will* most kindly requite.—SHAKESPEARE.

CHAPTER XIII.—DEFECTIVE AND IMPERSONAL VERBS.

84. Defective Verbs.—Among the six Auxiliary verbs there are three, namely *have*, *be*, *do*, that have all the forms of moods and tenses complete, whether they are or are not used for Auxiliary purposes.

The remaining three, namely (1) *shall*, *should*, (2) *will*, *would*, and (3) *may*, *might*, have no tenses but the Present and Past just given. These are therefore said to be **Defective** (that is, deficient in some of the forms that belong to other verbs).

Note.—The verb *will*, when it signifies to bequeath by will or testament, is not Defective, but is conjugated in all possible forms throughout. The Past Tense is then *willed*, not *would*.

To these three we must add three more Defective verbs, namely (1) *can*, *could*, (2) *must*, (3) *ought*,—all of which are in common use. Not one of these three verbs is an Auxiliary. They are all Principal verbs (Transitive), and the Infinitive that follows them is their object :—

(i.) I *can* or *could* (Trans. verb) *go* (Infin. object).
(ii.) I *must* (Trans. verb) *go* (Infin. object).
(iii.) I *ought* (Trans. verb) *to go* (Pres. Infin. object).
(iv.) I *ought* (Trans. verb) *to have gone* (Past Infin. object).

Note.—Avoid the common mistake of saying, "*He didn't ought to have gone.*" This is very bad English. The Auxiliary *did* can never be used before *ought*; for it has been shown in § 79 that *did* as an Auxiliary is always followed by an Infinitive. But *ought* is not an Infinitive. It is a Past tense, an older form of "owed." The sentence should therefore be, *He ought not to have gone.*

85. **Impersonal Verbs.**—These take "it" for their Subject, and are followed by some Personal pronoun in the Objective case, which in Personal verbs would be the Subject in the Nominative case :—

It shames *me* to hear this = I am ashamed to hear this.
It repents *me* of my folly = I repent of my folly.
It behoves *me* to do this = I ought to do this.

In the common phrase "methinks" (= it seems to me) the "it" is omitted. The verb "thinks" is here an Old English verb signifying "seems," quite distinct from the verb *think* "imagine." The verbs, though now they are both spelt with *i*, were differently spelt in Anglo-Saxon,—the former with a *y* (thync-an), the latter with an *e* (thenc-an)

Note.—Besides the Defective verbs named in § 84, we may mention the following, some of which are now rarely used.

Beware; a compound of *be* + *ware* (= wary, cautious).

Dight, "adorned," Past Part. for *dighted*; rare.

Hight, "is or was named," Past tense of an obsolete verb; used only in a Passive sense. Now seen only in poetry.

Quoth, "says" or "said," used only in the First or Third person, never in the Second. Properly the Past tense of an obsolete verb, Strong Conj., of which the Present form has survived in "be-*queath.*"

Wis, wot (Pres.), **wist** (Past), "to know"; nearly obsolete.

Wont, "accustomed." Past Part. of an obsolete verb.

Worth; as "Woe worth (= befall) the day." Subjunctive mood.

PART III.—PARSING AND SYNTAX.

This Part assumes that the student has thoroughly mastered Parts I. and II. The main points of both, so far as parsing is concerned, are recapitulated below; but the student should not be encouraged to repeat them by rote. He will remember them without effort, if he understands them thoroughly as he goes through them.

Kinds of Nouns.

Noun: a word used for naming some person or thing.

Proper: a name given to one particular person or thing, and not intended to denote more than one person or thing at a time; as *John, London, Windsor Castle, the Bible.*

Common: a name that may stand for any number of persons or things of the same kind: as *man, city, castle, book.*

Collective: a name given to a group, collection, or multitude; as *herd, flock, class, library, pack.*

Material: a name denoting some kind of matter or substance; as *mutton, grass, fruit, bread, water, oil, grease, blacking.*

Abstract: a name denoting some quality, state or action, apart from any object or objects; as *hardness, fever, pride, humility.*

Genders of Nouns.

Masculine: denotes males, as *father*; **Feminine**, females, as *mother*; **Common**, either sex, as *parent.*

Neuter: neither sex (or things without life), as *book, bread, fever.*

Kinds of Pronouns.

Pronoun: a word used instead of a noun. Or, a word which refers to some person or thing without giving a name to the person or thing referred to.

Personal: denotes the First person, as *I, we*; the Second, as *thou, you*; the Third, as *he, she, it, they.*

Demonstrative: points to some noun previously mentioned, and is used instead of it, as "Health is better than wealth; *this* gives less happiness than *that*." Here *this* stands for *wealth*, *that* for *health*.

Note.—Such words are *Pronouns*, when they are used **for** some noun; *Adjectives*, when they are used **with** some noun expressed or understood. The former are **substitutes** for some noun, the latter **qualify** some noun.

Relative or **Conjunctive**: (1) relates to some noun or pronoun going before (which is called the Antecedent), and (2) joins its own sentence to the sentence of the Antecedent, as "I *whom* you speak of am here."

Interrogative: inquires about some person or thing; as "*Who* spoke? *What* did he say?"

Kinds of Adjectives.

Adjective: qualifies a Noun, *i.e.* adds something to its meaning, so as to show more clearly what person or thing, or what kind of person or thing, the Noun is meant to stand for.

Proper: formed from a Proper noun, as *English, French.*

Descriptive: showing of what quality or in what state a thing is: as "a *tame* lion," "a *fine* house," "a *thick* forest."

Quantitative: showing how much of a thing is meant, as "*much* bread," "a *whole* holiday," "a *half* holiday."

Numeral: showing how many things are meant (*Cardinal*); as "six houses": or in what numerical order a thing stands (*Ordinal*); as "the sixth house." If the number is not specified, as in "*many* houses," "a *few* houses," "*all* houses," the adjective is called *Indefinite Numeral.*

Demonstrative: showing which or what thing is meant, as "*this* house," "*that* man." (The articles *a* and *the* are Demonstrative Adjectives, though it is convenient to call them articles.)

Interrogative: asking which or what thing is meant, as "*which* house?" "*what* man?"

Distributive: showing that things are taken separately or in separate lots, as "*each* person," "*every* word." "*every* six hours," "*either* side." (Every six hours = every space of six hours.)

Degrees of Comparison.

Positive: denotes the simple quality expressed by the adjective, as "a *fat* ox."

Comparative: denotes a higher degree of the quality, when one thing is compared with another of the same kind, as "a *fatter* ox."

Superlative: denotes the highest degree of the quality, when one thing is compared with all other things of the same kind, as "the *fattest* ox."

Kinds of Adverbs.

Adverb: qualifies, or adds something to the meaning of, any kind of word except a noun or pronoun.

Simple: modifies the meaning of some verb, adjective, preposition, conjunction, or other adverb, by saying something about the **quality**, as "*badly*"; or the **quantity**, as "*almost*"; or the **number**, as "*thrice*"; or the **time**, as "*then*"; or the **place**, as "*there*"; or any other attendant circumstance.

Interrogative: makes some inquiry about the **quality**, as "*how?*" the **quantity**, as "*how far* (=to what extent)?" the **number**, as "*how often?*" the **time**, as "*when?*" or the **place**, as "*where?*"

Relative or **Conjunctive**: (1) modifies the verb of its own sentence, and (2) joins its own sentence to the sentence of its Antecedent; as, "Tell me the hour *when* you will come."

Kinds of Verbs, Subject, Object.

Verb: a word used for stating a fact or a condition, giving an order or a request, or asking a question.

Transitive: denotes an action that is directed towards some person or thing; as "He *shot* a crow."

Intransitive: denotes an action that stops with the doer, and concerns no person or thing except the doer; as "He *fell*."

Auxiliary: assists a Principal verb (which may be either Transitive or Intransitive) to form some tense or tenses in the Indicative or Subjunctive mood and in the Active or Passive voice; as "I *have* come."

Subject: the word or words answering the question, Who or what does this? Who or what suffers this?

Object: the word or words answering the question, To whom or to what is the action of the verb directed?

Conjugations of Verbs.

Weak: forms its Past tense by adding *d* or *ed* or *t* to the Present, and sometimes (besides adding *d* or *ed* or *t*) changes the inside vowel of the Present tense; as *seek, sought; sell, sold.* (Sometimes, but improperly, called Regular.)

Strong: never adds *d* or *ed* or *t* to the Present tense for forming its Past tense, but always changes the inside vowel of the Present tense; as *drink, drank.* (Sometimes, but improperly, called Irregular.)

Mixed: forms its Past tense as a Weak verb by adding *d* or *ed* or *t*, but forms its Past participle as a Strong verb by adding *en* or *n*; as *mow, mowed, mown.*

Voice.

Active: when the verb is in the Active voice, the person or thing denoted by the Subject is said to *do* something; as *I love.*

Passive: when the verb is in the Passive voice, the person or thing denoted by the Subject is said to *suffer* something; as *I am loved.*

Finite Moods.

Mood: the form assumed by a verb to show the *mode* or *manner* in which the action denoted by the verb is represented.

Indicative: asserts something as a fact, or as a condition; as "I *came*," "if he *comes*." Or it enquires about something; as, "*Did* he *come*?"

Imperative: commands, or advises, or begs for something; as *come.*

Subjunctive: expresses a condition, a purpose, or a wish,—any kind of contingency except a fact; as "if he *come* or *should come*" (condition); "that he *may come*" (purpose); "*may* he *come*!" (wish).

Tenses in the Finite Moods.

Tense: the form assumed by a verb for showing (*a*) the *time* at which an event occurs, (*b*) the *degree of completeness* ascribed to an event at the time of its occurrence.

Indefinite: denotes Present, Past, or Future time in its simplest form, making no definite assertion about the degree of

completeness or incompleteness to be ascribed to the event; as "I *come*," "I *came*," "I *shall come*."

Continuous: denotes that the event (in Present, Past, or Future time) is not yet complete, but still going on: as "I *am coming*," "I was *coming*," "I *shall be coming*."

Perfect: denotes that the event (in Present, Past, or Future time) is in a completed or perfect state; as "I *have come*," "I *had come*," "I *shall have come*."

Perfect Continuous: combines the force of the two preceding forms; as "I *have been coming*," "I *had been coming*," "I *shall have been coming*."

Person: a verb is in the First person when the subject of the verb denotes a person speaking; in the Second person when it denotes a person spoken to; in the Third person when it denotes a person (or thing) spoken of.

Parts of a Verb not Finite.

Infinitive: names the action in its most general sense, without reference to any doer.

Participle: that part of a verb which is used either (*a*) as part of a tense and as such is preceded by an auxiliary verb *be* or *have*, or (*b*) as an adjective to qualify some noun or pronoun.

Gerund: a mixture of noun and verb,—(1) a noun in so far as it can be in the Nominative or Objective case; (2) a verb in so far as it expresses Present or Past time,—is in the Active or Passive voice, and (if Transitive) is followed by an object.

Verbal Noun: this is a pure noun, of the same form as the Gerund ending in *ing*, but it is preceded by an article, and is followed by the preposition *of*; as "the ploughing of a field."

Complement of a Verb.

Complement to an Intransitive verb, or to a Transitive verb in the Passive voice, is a word or combination of words, which completes what the verb left unsaid about its *Subject*. This is called a Subjective complement.

Complement to a Transitive verb in the Active voice is a word or combination of words, which completes what the verb left unsaid about its *Object*. This is called an Objective complement.

CHAPTER XIV.—THE PARSING OF NOUNS.

86. What parsing is.—To *parse* a word is to examine it in two different points :—(1) What *part* of speech it is, (2) what *part* it plays in the building of a sentence. (*Parse* is from Latin *pars*, a part.)

Note.—Of the eight parts of speech the only kind of word that cannot be parsed in the second sense is an Interjection. This point has been explained already in § 4. So in parsing such a word the only thing we can say is that it is an Interjection.

All the other parts of speech stand in some connection with other words, and must therefore be parsed in the second sense as well as in the first. Thus if we have to parse "*in*" in such a phrase as "a bird in the hand," we say not merely that it is a preposition, but a preposition having "hand" for its object. It shows what the bird has to do with the hand, or the hand with the bird.

In the older forms of our language, when inflectional endings were more numerous, parsing was less difficult than it is now, when we have but few of these left to guide us. Now we have to look chiefly to *the work that a word does in a sentence* (as explained in Chap. I.), and not expect so much help from the form or ending.

87. How to parse Nouns.—To parse a noun you have to show four different things concerning it :—

(*a*) Of what **kind** it is,—whether Proper, Common, Collective, Material, or Abstract.

(*b*) Of what **gender** it is,—whether Masculine, Feminine, Common, or Neuter.

(*c*) Of what **number** it is,—whether Singular or Plural.

(*d*) In what **case** it is,—whether Nominative, Possessive, or Objective. (The rules for case are given in detail in Chapter XVI.)

Examples.

(1) The master of this class teaches French without a book.

Master—Common noun, Masculine gender, Singular number, Nominative case, Subject to the verb "teaches."

Class—Collective noun, Neuter gender, Singular number, Objective case after the preposition "of."

French—Proper noun, Neuter gender, Singular number, Objective case after the verb "teaches."

Book—Common noun, Neuter gender, Singular number, Objective case after the preposition "without."

(2) The deer in my father's forest nibble the grass with eagerness.

Deer—Common noun, Common gender, Plural number, Nominative case, Subject to the verb "nibble."

Father's—Common noun, Masculine gender, Singular number, Possessive case qualifying the noun "forest."

Forest—Collective noun, Neuter gender, Singular number, Objective case after the preposition "in."

Grass—Material noun, Neuter gender, Singular number, Objective case after the verb "nibble."

Eagerness—Abstract noun, Neuter gender, Singular number, Objective case after the preposition "with."

CHAPTER XV.—THE PARSING OF PRONOUNS.

88. How to parse Pronouns.—To parse a pronoun you have to show five different things concerning it :—

(*a*) Of what **kind** it is,—whether Personal, Demonstrative, Relative (*i.e.* Conjunctive), or Interrogative.

(*b*) Of what **gender** it is,—whether Masculine, Feminine, Common, or Neuter.

(*c*) Of what **number** it is,—whether Singular or Plural.

(*d*) Of what **person** it is,—whether first, second, or third.

(*e*) In what **case** it is,—whether Nominative, Possessive, or Objective. (The rules for case are given in detail in Chapter XVI.)

Examples.

(1) I have written down your names in my book.

I—Personal pronoun, Common gender, Singular number, First person, Nominative case, Subject to the verb "have written down."

Your—Personal pronoun, Common gender, Plural number, Possessive case qualifying the noun "names."

My—Personal pronoun, Common gender, Singular number, First person, Possessive case qualifying the noun "book."

(2) Who spoke? and what did he say?

Who—Interrogative pronoun, Common gender, Singular number, Third person, Nominative case, Subject to the verb "spoke."

What—Interrogative pronoun, Neuter gender, Singular number, Third person, Objective case after the verb "say."

He—Personal pronoun, Masculine gender, Singular number, Third person, Nominative case, Subject to the verb "did."

89. **Relatives and Demonstratives.** — The following rule should be remembered and observed in parsing Relatives and Demonstratives :—

A Relative or a Demonstrative pronoun is of the same gender, the same number, and the same person as its antecedent; but its case has nothing to do with the case of its antecedent.

This rule is called a Concord (or Agreement). The following form may be used for putting it into effect :—

Kind of Pronoun.	Name its Antecedent.	Therefore the same as its Antecedent in			Case.
		Gender.	Number.	Person.	
Relative or Demonstrative					

Examples.

(1) I prefer a white horse to a black *one*.

One—Demonstrative pronoun, having "horse" for its antecedent, and therefore of Common gender, Singular number, and Third person. Objective case after the preposition "to."

(2) The man who was caught turned out to be the thief.

Who—Relative pronoun, having "man" for its antecedent, and therefore of Masculine gender, Singular number, and Third

person. Nominative case, because it is the Subject of the verb "was caught."

(3) I whom you suspected of the theft was not guilty.

Whom—Relative pronoun, having "I" for its antecedent, and therefore of Common gender, Singular number, and First person. Objective case after the verb "suspected."

Note 1.—The antecedent to a Relative pronoun is not always expressed:—

Whom the gods love die young.

Here some antecedent such as "Those" or "Those persons" must be understood. It is clear from the context that *whom* is of the Common gender, Plural number, and Third person.

Note 2.—The antecedent to a Demonstrative pronoun such as "They" or "One" is not always expressed.

They say that prices will soon fall.
One must be careful of *one's* money.

When *they* or *one* are thus used without reference to any antecedent, they are said to be **Indefinite** Demonstrative pronouns, because they stand for no person or persons in particular.

CHAPTER XVI.—CASES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

90. Nominative.—There are five different conditions under which a noun or pronoun can be in the Nominative case:—

(1) As Subject to a verb:—

I did this. *Rain* is falling. *You* are tired.

(2) As Complement to an Intransitive or Passive verb:—

I am *he*. William I. was surnamed the *Conqueror*.
He became or turned out a *scholar*. He seems a good *rider*.

(3) In apposition with some other noun or pronoun in the Nominative case. (One noun is said to be in apposition with another, when it refers to the same person or thing and is mentioned immediately after it.)

John, the *carpenter*, has done well to-day.

Note.—Sometimes a noun is in apposition with a sentence or with some noun implied in the sentence :—

He slew all his prisoners,—a cruel and impolitic *act.*

He ordered the *slaying* of all his prisoners, a cruel and impolitic act.

In the first sentence the noun *act* is in apposition with the noun *slaying* implied in the verb *slew.*

(4) Nominative of address :—

How art thou fallen, O *Cæsar* !

(5) Nominative absolute. (A noun or pronoun is absolute, *i.e.* free and independent, when it is neither the Subject of a verb, nor the Object of a verb, nor the Object of a preposition. In this construction it goes with some participle or with an Infinitive) :—

(*a*) We then started, *he* remaining behind.

(*b*) *We* having given the signal, the guns were fired.

(*c*) The race will be run to-day, *the winner* to receive a silver cup.

In (*a*) the participle expresses present time, in (*b*) the participle expresses past time, in (*c*) the Infinitive expresses future time. We have no participle to express futurity.

Note.—The participle is sometimes omitted. When this occurs some participle such as *being* must be understood :—

Breakfast over (= breakfast being over), we started on our journey.

91. Possessive.[1]—A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case has the same force as an adjective, and may be used either as qualifying some noun or as the complement of some verb :—

My son has come ; I am pleased at *his* coming . (*Qualifying*).
This house is *mine*, not the *barber's* . . . (*Complement*).

[1] The name "Possessive" has been objected to, because it is not wide enough to cover all the uses to which this case can be put. But a similar objection applies to many other technical terms used in grammar. "Nominative" does not cover all the uses of the case so named. "Objective" is much too narrow. "Indicative," "Imperative," "Subjunctive" are all too narrow. Such inequalities are unavoidable.

The term "Genitive" (recommended by the Terminological Committee of 1910) is less suitable than the well-established term "Possessive."

Note 1.—When two Possessive nouns are in apposition, the apostrophe *s* is added either to the first or last, but not to both :—

King Alfred's reign. (We do not say, "King's Alfred's reign.")

Herod married his *brother* Philip's wife.

For the queen's sake, his *sister*.—BYRON.

Note 2.—There are three different senses in which the Possessive case can be used :—

(*a*) **Subjective.**—Here the noun or pronoun in the Possessive case denotes the *subject* of the action or feeling.

His friendship for me (*i.e.* the friendship that he has for me) is sincere.

(*b*) **Objective.**—Here the noun or pronoun in the Possessive case denotes the *object* of the action or feeling.

His friendship (*i.e.* the friendship that I had for him) must be given up by me.

(*c*) **Descriptive,** denoting the quality expressed by the noun.

The *mother's* (*i.e.* motherly) nature of Althea.—LOWELL.

To her *woman's* (*i.e.* womanly) heart love was all.—Mrs. CRAIK.

92. **Objective.**—There are seven different conditions, under which a noun can be in the Objective case :—

(1) As Object to a verb : for details see Chapter XVII.

(2) As Complement to a Transitive verb :—

They made him their *leader*.

(3) In apposition with another noun or pronoun in the Objective case :—

The Roundheads beheaded Charles I., *the king*.

(4) As Object to a preposition :—

A house built on *sand*. He depends on *me*.

(5) Adverbial objective :—

He lived ten *years* . . .	*Time.*
He walked four *miles* . . .	*Space.*
This cost or is worth six *shillings* .	*Value.*
That box weighs twelve *pounds* .	*Weight.*
The air is a *trifle* hotter to-day .	*Quantity.*
Bind him *hand and foot* . .	*Attendant circumstance.*

(6) Objective after the adjectives *like, near.* (This has arisen from the omission of the preposition "to," which is still sometimes expressed.)

No man could ride like *him.*
The house nearest the *grove* is the best.

(7) Objective in exclamation :—

Oh dear *me* ! Unhappy *man* !

Exercise 15.

Parse (by the methods shown in §§ 87-89) every noun and pronoun occurring in the following examples, and explain its case by the rules given in Chapter XVI. :—

1. Marius having been defeated returned to Rome. 2. Marius having been defeated, his troops returned to Rome. 3. He needs strong arms, who swims against the tide. 4. If he had remained a soldier, he would probably have got his commission. 5. Here lay Duncan, his silver skin laced with his golden blood.—SHAKES. 6. For thy servant David's sake.—*Old Test.* 7. This wall is a hundred feet high. 8. He came to see us every other day. 9. I thought him the cleverest man that I had ever seen. 10. Solomon's temple was built without the noise of axe or hammer ; the fabric grew silently like a tall palm. 11. He dwelt two months in the house of one Simon, the Tanner. 12. He grew day by day more and more like his former self. 13. The army of the Canaanites, nine hundred chariots strong, covered the plains of Esdraelon.—MILMAN. 14. Why stand ye here all the day idle ?—*New Test.* 15. He, having finished the work, received his pay for the day. 16. He having finished the work, the horse and cart were taken back to the farm. 17. Who is the maker of this watch ? 18. My story being done, she gave me for my pains a world of sighs.—SHAKES. 19. Poor man ! I wish I could have helped him out of that difficulty. 20. I who speak unto thee am he.—*New Test.* 21. Six shillings were paid for this book ; but it was worth only four (shillings). 22. Our country has not produced two Newtons. 23. The rock lies ten fathoms deep under the water. 24. He walked ten miles a day, and never complained of fatigue. 25. Ye mariners of England, who guard our native seas, whose flag has braved a thousand years the battle and the breeze.—CAMPBELL.

CHAPTER XVII.—VERB AND OBJECT.

93. **Direct and Indirect Objects.** — There are some Transitive verbs that take two objects, one of which (called the *Direct*) expresses the **thing** towards which the action of the verb is directed, and the other (called the *Indirect*) expresses the **person** or **persons** to whom or for whom the action is done :—

The master teaches *French* . . *Direct Object.*
The master teaches *me* French . . *Indirect Object.*
Let *me* (Indir. Object) *see* (Dir. Object, Infinitive).

Note.—The Indirect object always comes first, that is, immediately after the verb. If it is not put first, it must have some preposition placed before it :—

The master teaches French *to me.*
They brought an easy chair *for me.*

In such examples the *me*, which was at first the Indirect object of the verb, has now become the object of the preposition.

94. **Retained Object.**—A verb that takes two objects in the Active voice can usually retain one or other in the Passive. Hence such an object is called the "Retained object" :—

Active. The master teaches me French.
Passive. I was taught *French* by the master.
Passive. French was taught *me* by the master.

Note.—It sometimes happens, however, that the Direct object placed after a Transitive verb in the Active voice cannot be retained after the same verb in the Passive voice.

They brought me an easy chair.

We can say, "An easy chair was brought *me*" (Indirect object). But we cannot say, "I was brought *an easy chair*" (Direct object). Whether or no a Direct object can be retained after a verb in the Passive voice is purely a matter of idiom or usage. No rule can be laid down and no reason can be given why a Direct object can be retained after some verbs and not after all.

95. Cognate Object.—An object can be placed after an Intransitive verb, if its meaning is cognate or kindred with that of the verb, that is, implied more or less in the verb itself.

The horse ran a *race*.
The clock struck one (*stroke*).
The illness must run its *course*.
At the time of that battle the river ran *blood*.

In the last example *blood* really means "a bloody or blood-stained course," and "course" is the implied Cognate object. We cannot place any *outside* object after the Intransitive verb "run," that is, any object that has no connection with the meaning of the verb itself:—"The horse ran a wall." This is nonsense.

96. Reflexive Object. — A Reflexive pronoun, placed after an Intransitive verb, and referring to the same person as the subject, is called a Reflexive object. Such objects, however, are not common.

John overslept *himself*.

This means "John overslept or slept too long for himself." 'Himself" is here a kind of Indirect object, because it names the person for whom the action is done.

Note.—A pronoun, which is Reflexive in sense, is not always Reflexive in form:—

They sat *them* down on the river bank.

Here *sat* is Intransitive like *overslept* in the previous example; and *them* is as Reflexive in sense (though not in form) as *himself* in the previous example.

Summary.—There are thus five different kinds of objects that can be placed after verbs.—the Direct after a Transitive verb, Active; the Indirect after a Transitive verb, Active; the Retained after a Transitive verb, Passive; the Cognate after an Intransitive verb; the Reflexive after an Intransitive verb.

Observe further that these various objects can be placed not merely after Finite verbs, but after Participles, Gerunds, and Infinitives.

Exercise 16.

Point out the object to the verb in each of the following sentences, and say what kind of object it is :—

1. He lived a life of industry, and died the death of the righteous. 2. I was asked a question, which I could not answer. 3. Teach me, O Lord, the way of thy statutes.—*Old Test.* 4. I was promised that post, but it was given to another. 5. I have fought a good fight ; I have kept the faith.—*New Test.* 6. O thou invisible spirit of wine, if thou hast no name to be called by, let us call thee devil !—SHAKESPEARE. 7. They sat them down on the grassy bank of the river. 8. She busied herself with gathering the wild flowers of the forest. 9. He went away gloomy and sad, meditating revenge. 10. He always looked puzzled on being asked an unusual question. 11. The fever kept him ill for two or three weeks before it had run its full course. 12. He was taught reading by one master, and writing by another. 13. Ask me no more questions : I have no desire to answer one of them. 14. Old mother Hubbard she went to the cupboard, to fetch her poor dog a bone. 15. Fare thee well. 16. To save one's country from ruin is an honour that few men have been able to acquire. 17. Pure religion and undefiled before God is this, To visit the fatherless and widows in their affliction, and to keep himself unspotted from the world.—*New Test.* 18. The wind blew a cold blast from the north.

CHAPTER XVIII.—THE PARSING OF ADJECTIVES.

97. **How to parse Adjectives.**—To parse an Adjective you have to show three different things about it :—

(*a*) Of what **kind** it is,—whether Proper, Descriptive, Quantitative, Numeral, Demonstrative, Interrogative, or Distributive :—

(*b*) In what **degree** it is,—whether Positive, Comparative, or Superlative :—

(*c*) What its **use** is,—whether Attributive or Predicative ; and if Attributive, what word it qualifies.

Note 1.—An Adj. is used **attributively**, when it *directly* qualifies a noun or pronoun ; as " A large house."

It is used **predicatively**, when it is part of the predicate and qualifies the subject or object of the verb *indirectly* ; as—

This house is *large*. They made the house *large*.

Note 2.—In poetry, and sometimes in prose, an adjective can be used to qualify a verb, as if it were an adverb :—

And *furious* every charger neighed.—CAMPBELL.

Note 3.—The noun qualified by an adjective is not always expressed. When this occurs, the adjective is said to be used as a noun.

The *poor* (*i.e.* poor persons). The *middle* (*i.e.* middle part).

Examples.

(1) A fine horse has just been bought.

A—Demonstrative adjective (Indefinite article).

Fine—Descriptive adjective, Positive degree, used attributively to qualify the noun " horse."

(2) This house is larger than that.

This—Demonstrative adjective, used attributively to qualify the noun " house."

Larger—Descriptive adjective, Comparative degree, used predicatively as complement to the verb " is."

That—Demonstrative adjective, used attributively to qualify the noun " house " understood.

(3) The three men had each a gun, and the tallest of them seemed young.

The—Demonstrative adjective (Definite article).

Three—Numeral adjective (cardinal), used attributively to qualify the noun " men."

Each—Distributive adjective, used attributively to qualify the noun " man " understood.

Tallest—Descriptive adjective, Superlative degree, used attributively to qualify the noun " man " understood.

Young—Descriptive adjective, Positive degree, used predicatively as complement to the verb " seemed."

98. **A noun or Verbal noun** placed before another noun is sometimes used as an adjective ; that is, it qualifies the noun as an adjective would do :—

A *bathing* place ; *summer* heat ; *drawing* room ; *dining* room ; *winter* cold ; a *gold* chain ; an *apple* tart ; a *Bath* bun ; an *oyster* shop ; an *evening* fire ; a *morning* breeze, etc.

When the two nouns are joined by a hyphen, the noun formed by the junction is called a Compound :—

The battle-field ; tool-shed ; oak-tree ; cotton-mill ; hand-mill.

Sometimes the two nouns are joined together without any hyphen :—

Bathroom ; eyelid ; eyebrow ; watchword ; moonlight, etc.

CHAPTER XIX.—FINITE VERB AND SUBJECT.

99. How to parse Finite Verbs.—The points to be explained in the parsing of a Finite verb are shown in their proper order in the two following tables :—

Kind of Verb.	Conjug.	Voice.	Mood.	Tense.	Form of Tense.
Transitive Intransitive	Strong Weak Mixed	Active Passive	Indic. Imper. Subjunc.	Present Past Future	Indefinite Continuous Perfect Perf. Contin.

Number.	Person.	Agreement.
Singular Plural	First Second Third	Agreeing in Number and Person with its subject or subjects, expressed or understood.

(1) James has been fishing all the morning.

Has been fishing—Intransitive verb, Weak conjugation, Active voice, Indicative mood, Present-Perfect-Continuous tense, having "James" for its subject, and therefore in the Singular number and Third person.

(2) James and I will be promoted next term.

Will be promoted—Transitive verb, Weak conjugation, Passive

voice, Indicative mood, Future-Indefinite tense, having "James and I" for the two subjects, and therefore in the Plural number and First person. (See Rules I. and II. in § 100.)

(3) He worked hard that he might win a prize.

Worked—Intransitive verb, Weak conjugation, Active voice, Indicative mood, Past-Indefinite tense, having "he" for its subject, and therefore in the Singular number and Third person.

Might win—Transitive verb, Strong conjugation, Active voice, Subjunctive mood, Past-Indefinite tense, having "he" for its subject, and therefore in the Singular number and Third person.

(4) You will have got to your house by that time.

Will have got—Transitive verb here used Intransitively, Strong conjugation, Active voice, Indicative mood, Future-Perfect tense, having "you" for its subject, and therefore in the Plural number and Second person.

(5) The jury were puzzled and would have been divided in their opinions, if the judge had not known well how to guide them.

Were puzzled—Transitive verb, Weak conjugation, Passive voice, Indicative mood, Past-Indefinite tense, having "jury" for its subject (a noun that implies more persons than one), and therefore in the Plural number, Third person. (See Rule IV. in § 100.)

Would have been divided—Transitive verb, Weak conjugation, Passive voice, Subjunctive mood, Future-Perfect tense, having "jury" for its subject, and therefore in the Plural number, Third person.

Had known—Transitive verb, Strong conjugation, Active voice, Indicative mood, Past-Perfect tense, having "judge" for its subject, and therefore in the Singular number and Third person.

(6) So be it.

Be—Intransitive verb, Subjunctive mood, Present tense, having "it" for its subject, and therefore in the Singular number, Third person.

100. Agreement of Verb with Subject.—The rule relating to the agreement between a Finite verb and its Subject is called a Concord :—

A verb must be in the same number and person as its Subject or Nominative.

The following special rules for working out this general Concord or Agreement should be also noted and observed :—

Rule I.—When two or more singular Subjects are connected by *and*, the verb is plural :—

Time and tide *wait* for no man.

Rule II.—When two or more Subjects connected by *and* differ in person, the verb takes the first person in preference to the second, and the second in preference to the third :—

James and I (=we) *have* been promoted . (*First person.*)
James and you (=you) *were* both absent . (*Second person.*)
James and John (=they) *are* great friends . (*Third person.*)

Rule III.—When two nouns connected by *and* express a single person or thing or are intended to express a single notion, the Subject is singular in sense, and hence the verb is singular also :—

(1) Truth and honesty *is* the best policy.

Here the phrase "truth and honesty" expresses a single notion. The two nouns stand for one thing, not for two.

(2) The poet and statesman *is* dead.

If the article were repeated before "statesman," this would show that two different persons were intended : the verb would then of course be plural :—

The poet and *the* statesman *are* dead.

But as the article is given only once, one person (who is both statesman and poet) is intended, and therefore the verb is singular.

Rule IV.—When the Subject is a noun of Multitude, *i.e.* singular in form but plural in sense, the verb is Plural :—

The jury (=men on the jury) *were* divided in their opinions.
(Here *jury* is a noun of Multitude) . (*Plural in sense.*)
The jury (Collective noun) *consists* of twelve (*Singular in sense.*)

Rule V.—When two or more singular Subjects are connected by *either . . . or, neither . . . nor*, the verb is Singular :—

Either James or John *is* to be promoted.

Note.—Thus Rule V. is the opposite to Rule I. The conjunction *and* (in Rule I.) unites the sense of the two subjects, and therefore the verb is Plural. But the conjunction *or* (in Rule V.) disunites or separates the sense of the two subjects. It means "one or the other, not both." Hence the verb is Singular.

Rule VI.—When one of the Subjects connected by *or, nor,* etc., is Singular and the other Plural, the Plural subject should be placed next to the verb so as to make the verb plural :—

Neither the cock nor the hens *are* in the yard.

Note.—It would sound very harsh, if we said, "Neither the hens nor the cock *is* in the yard."

Rule VII.—When the Subjects (noun or pronoun) connected by *or, nor,* etc., are not of the same person, the verb agrees with the Subject mentioned last :—

Either James or I *am* to get the prize.

But it is better to repeat the verb :—

Either James *is* to get the prize, or I *am*.

Rule VIII.—When two or more Singular subjects are connected by *as well as,* the verb is Singular :—

A box as well as a book *has* been stolen.

Rule IX.—When the Subjects connected by *as well as* differ in number or person or both, the verb takes the number and person of the subject that stands first :—

My partners as well as I *were* at fault.
I as well as they *am* ruined.

Rule X.—When two or more Singular nouns are qualified by a Distributive adjective, the verb is Singular :—

Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water *teems* with life.

Exercise 17.

In the following sentences parse each Finite verb on the method shown in § 99, *and according to the rules given in* § 100 :—

1. He had been gone two hours, before we received notice

that he was to stop. 2. Go, where glory awaits thee. 3. The horse was taken to the stable. 4. The man and his friend walked into the field. 5. I have long been absent from home. 6. Were I in his place, I should pay the debt. 7. He will have walked about three miles, since he left the house. 8. Murder, though it have no tongue, will yet speak. 9. If I were he, I should start at once. 10. He would have started at once, if he had known better. 11. The committee were all agreed that A. had done good work. 12. Either Albert or I am to be promoted. 13. The hens as well as the cock have been lost. 14. Youth and experience seldom exist together. 15. Let me speak for once. 16. By the time the clock strikes six, I shall have been working eight full hours. 17. God save the queen; long live the king. 18. Pride and poverty make no one happy. 19. Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends.—*New Test.* 20. No sooner had he got into bed, than he fell asleep. 21. It is I who am asked, not you. 22. Jack and Jill went up the hill. 23. A carriage and pair costs a large sum.

Exercise 18.

Correct any errors that you may find in the agreement of Subject and Finite verb :—

1. James with his friend have come to-day. 2. A large number of holiday-makers were present on that day. 3. A boy as well as a man were caught trespassing. 4. Two apples as well as a pear was given me to-day. 5. Neither he nor she were present that day. 6. Either you or your brother are blamed for this, not I. 7. The jury consist of twelve persons. 8. The scene and the foliage is very beautiful. 9. A carriage and pair have just entered the coachman's yard. 10. A man with his dog have just come into the street.

CHAPTER XX.—THE PARSING OF INFINITIVES.

101. How to parse Infinitives.—To parse an Infinitive you have to show two different things concerning it :—

(*a*) Of what **form** it is,—whether Indefinite, as *to see* ;

or Present-Continuous, as *to be seeing*; or Perfect, as *to have seen*; or Perfect-Continuous, as *to have been seeing*.

(*b*) What is its **use**,—whether it is used as a Noun-Infinitive or as a Qualifying Infinitive (see §§ 102, 103).

102. The Noun-Infinitive.—In this capacity the Infinitive does the work of—(*a*) Subject to a verb, (*b*) Object to a verb, (*c*) Complement to a verb, (*d*) Object to a preposition. Since it does the work of a noun in all the positions which a noun is expected to fill, it is very fitly called the Noun-Infinitive.

(*a*) *Subject to a verb :—*

To sleep is necessary to health.
To work hard is the way to success.

(*b*) *Object to a verb :—*

We desire *to improve.*

Note 1.—In the sentence, "He gave me *to understand*," the Infin. "to understand" is the Direct object of "gave," and "me" is the Indirect.

Note 2.—The "to" is not used after the Auxiliary verbs *shall, will, may, do*, nor after *must, can, dare not, need not*. To all of these verbs the Infinitive is the Object :—

I shall *go*, I did not *go*, He dare not *go*, etc.

Here *go* is the object first to "shall," then to "did," and then to "dare."

(*c*) *Complement to a verb :—*

I saw him *come*. I ordered him *to go.*

Note.—The student will remember (see § 71) that the "to" is not used after the verbs *hear, see, feel, make, let, bid, watch, behold, know*, to all of which the Infinitive is used as complement.

(*d*) *Object to a preposition :—*

(1) He did nothing but *laugh.*
(2) My plans are about *to succeed.*

In (1) the Infin. *laugh* is the object of the preposition *but.* In (2) the Infin. *to succeed* (=success) is the object of the preposition *about*, which signifies nearness or contiguity in time, place, or other circumstance.

103. The Qualifying Infinitive.[1] — In this capacity the Infinitive does the work of (*a*) an adverb to a verb, (*b*) an adverb to an adjective, (*c*) an adjective to a noun, or (*d*) a participle to a noun or pronoun in a future sense.

(*a*) *Adverb to a verb* :—

(1) He came *to see* the sport.
(2) It came *to pass.*

In (1) *to see* qualifies the verb "came," as if it were an adverb. Here the Infinitive denotes a *purpose* : "He came for the purpose of seeing the sport." In (2) *to pass* expresses, not a purpose, but a *result.*

(*b*) *Adverb to an adjective* :—

Quick *to hear* and slow *to speak.*

Here *to hear* qualifies the adjective "quick," and *to speak* qualifies "slow." Each Infinitive therefore does the work of an adverb. "Quick for hearing and slow for speaking."

(*c*) *Adjective to a noun,* either attributively or predicatively (§ 97, *Note* 1) :—

A house *to let.* This house is *to let.*

Here *to let* qualifies the noun "house" attributively in the first example, and predicatively in the second. In each case, therefore, it does the work of an adjective.

(*d*) *Participle to a noun or pronoun* in a future sense ; see § 72, where this use of the Infinitive is explained ; see also § 90, (5) Nominative absolute.

Examples.

(1) He intended *to have seen* you to-day.

To have seen —Perfect in form, noun in function, object to the Transitive verb "intended."

(2) I came *to see* you, but you did not *appear.*

To see —Indefinite in form, adverb in function, qualifying the verb "came."

Appear—Indefinite in form, noun in function, object to the verb "did."

[1] The Qualifying Infinitive is also known as the *Gerundial* Infinitive. But the name "Gerundial" implies or suggests a connection with Gerund, which does not exist. So the name Qualifying is much to be preferred.

Exercise 19.

Parse every Infinitive that you can find in the following sentences :—

1. We saw the ship leave the docks at four o'clock. 2. We came to see it start and say good-bye to one of the passengers. 3. We hope to see him back soon. 4. He did not come back in time to spend Christmas with us. 5. We watched the cat steal silently towards the mouse and then suddenly seize it in its claws. 6. I was very much pleased to see you. 7. I will see you again shortly. 8. The boys dare not speak, when the master tells them to be silent. 9. Being quick to forgive and slow to avenge an injury, he made no one dislike him. 10. I shall be glad to see you, whenever you desire to come here. 11. There are many houses to let in this street. 12. That the injustices of the present world will be amended in the world to come is a thing to be hoped for by the good and feared by the evil. 13. Let me see the ship sail by. 14. We must work while it is day ; for the night cometh, when no man can work. 15. Make the horse step out a little faster. 16. Did you see that shooting star ? 17. To err is human ; to forgive, divine. 18. I am ashamed to say that he let the man go without paying him. 19. Have you finished all the work that you had to do ? 20. I am sorry to find that your feelings have been hurt. 21. I am to blame, not you.

CHAPTER XXI.—THE PARSING OF PARTICIPLES.

104. How to parse Participles.—To parse a Participle you have to show four different things concerning it :—

(*a*) In what **form** it is,—whether Present, as *fading* ; or Past Indefinite, as *faded* ; or Past Perfect, as *having faded.*

(*b*) What **kind** of verb it is,—whether Transitive or Intransitive.

(*c*) In what **voice** it is,—whether Active or Passive.

(*d*) What the **use** of the Participle is,—whether Attributive, Predicative, or Absolute.

Note 1.—If the Participle given is part of a tense, it should be parsed as part of the tense, and not as a separate word. Thus in "I have *come*," we should parse *come*, not as a separate word, but as part of a Present Perfect tense.

Note 2.—The Attributive and Predicative uses of participles are the same as those of adjectives, which have been explained in *Note* 1 to § 97. The Absolute use in connection with some noun or pronoun in the Nominative case has been explained in § 90 (5).

Examples.

(1) He appeared *tired* after his work.

Past-Indefinite participle, Transitive verb, Passive voice, used predicatively as complement to the verb "appeared."

(2) *Believing* himself to be right, he stuck to his opinion.

Present participle, Transitive verb, Active voice, used attributively to qualify the pronoun "he."

(3) The sun *having risen*, we can now set off.

Past-Perfect participle, Intransitive verb, used absolutely with the noun "sun."

Note.—When no noun or pronoun is placed before a participle used absolutely, the participle is practically a preposition. Such a participle is sometimes called an *Impersonal* Absolute.

He plays well, *considering* his age.

Owing to his lameness he could not walk straight.

Exercise 20.

Parse every Participle in the following sentences :—

1. Having finished all the work given him to do, he seemed more pleased with himself than usual. 2. The sun, having set at six o'clock, left us in the evening twilight. 3. The sun having set at six o'clock, we had scarcely enough daylight left to get home. 4. A faded rose is not so pleasing as a blooming daisy. 5. The rose in your hand is more faded than the one in mine. 6. Having been convicted of more than one theft, he left the country. 7. He seemed contented with his lot. 8. A contented mind is a continual feast. 9. It is not enough for a house to be well built; it ought also to be well planned. 10. The trees having cast their leaves, we are now on the verge of winter. 11. The trees, having cast their leaves, look bare.

CHAPTER XXII.—THE PARSING OF GERUNDS AND VERBAL NOUNS.

105. Gerund. — A Gerund is a mixture of verb and noun. To parse it you have to show three different things about it in its verb-character, and one thing about it in its noun-character.

As Verb.
- (*a*) In what **form** it is,—whether Present, as *going*, or Past, as *having gone*.
- (*b*) What **kind** of verb it is,—whether Transitive or Intransitive.
- (*c*) In what **voice** it is,—whether Active or Passive.

As Noun.
- (*d*) In what **case** it is,—whether Nominative, Possessive, or Objective.

Examples.

(1) He is fond of *swimming* in the sea, and was pleased with himself for *having swum* out far from the shore.

Swimming—(1) as Verb; Present form, Intransitive verb; (2) as Noun; Objective case after the preposition "of."

Having swum—(1) as Verb; Past form, Intransitive verb; (2) as Noun; Objective case after the preposition "for."

(2) *Deceiving* others amused him, but he disliked *being deceived* himself.

Deceiving—(1) as Verb; Present form, Transitive verb, Active voice; (2) as Noun: Nominative case, Subject to the verb "amused."

Being deceived—(1) as Verb; Present form, Transitive verb, Passive voice; (2) as Noun; Objective case after the verb "disliked."

106. Verbal Noun.—The form ending in *-ing* is called a Verbal noun, either (*a*) when it is followed by the preposition "of"; or (*b*) when it is used in the plural number. This is a *pure noun*, and should be parsed like any other noun (§ 75). It has no verb-character whatever; and hence it is qualified by an *adjective*, while a gerund is qualified by an *adverb*.

(1) The second *hearing* of the case was postponed.

Verbal noun, Abstract, Neuter gender, Singular number Nominative case, Subject to the verb "was postponed."

(2) I am much pleased with my *surroundings*.

Verbal noun, Common, Neuter gender, Plural number, Objective case after the preposition "with."

107. Summary of Forms ending in "-ing."—The grammatical uses of such forms may be summed up as follows :— [1]

I. *Participial*
- 1. Part of a tense.
- 2. Adjective (Attributive / Predicative).
- 3. Absolute (With noun or pronoun / Without noun or pronoun).

II. *Gerundial*
- 4. Gerund Proper, noun and verb mixed.
- 5. Verbal noun, pure noun.

1. *Part of tense :* I am *coming* ; he has been *coming* ; he will be *coming*.
2. *Adjective :* A *disappointing* result. (*Attrib. use.*)
   The result is *disappointing* to all of us. (*Predic. use.*)
3. *Absolute :* We all set off, the clock *striking* one. (*With noun.*)
   Opinions differ *regarding* this point. (*Without noun.*)

(Here *regarding*, though a participle in origin, is practically a preposition and might be so parsed.)

4. *Gerund (noun and verb mixed)* : I am tired of *warning* you.
5. *Verbal noun (pure noun)* : I do not require your *warnings*.

Exercise 21.

Parse every word ending in **-ing** *in the following sentences :—*

1. We have been *working* hard *during* the whole of the past

[1] It is sometimes said that a verb ending in *-ing* may be either I. a participle (as shown above), or II. a gerund (as shown above), or III. *an inflected form of infinitive*. The third is a mistake. The form ending in *-ing* was never anything else than either a participle or a gerund (verbal noun). It was never an Infinitive at any time in the history of English.

week. 2. It is of no use *questioning* him *regarding* this matter. 3. *Owing* to the long drought, every plant is *beginning* to fade. 4. Great things sometimes result from small *beginnings*. 5. I was much pleased on *hearing* of your success. 6. *Seeing* is *believing*. 7. There is some talk of his *returning* before long. 8. *Deepening* his voice with the *deepening* of the darkness, he continued *humming* a tune. 9. I hope to be *returning* home at this time to-morrow. 10. The shades of night are *falling* fast. 11. The journey was soon finished, the one *walking* and the other *riding* in turns. 12. The *ending* of a word is called in grammar an inflection. 13. Do you think of *giving* a new name to your house, or do you prefer *leaving* the name as it is? 14. I am tired of *swimming*: I have been *swimming* for the last hour or more.

CHAPTER XXIII.—THE PARSING OF ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS.

108. How to parse Adverbs.—To parse an adverb you must show four different things concerning it:—

(*a*) Of what **kind** it is,—whether Simple, Relative, or Interrogative.

(*b*) If Simple, in what **degree** of comparison it is,—whether Positive, Comparative, or Superlative.

(*c*) What its **use** is,—whether Attributive or Predicative; and if Attributive, what word it qualifies.

Note.—An adverb is used **attributively**, when it directly qualifies some adjective, verb, preposition, conjunction, or other adverb [1]; as—

This boy is *remarkably* clever	(*Adjective.*)
A snake moves *silently* through the grass .	(*Verb.*)
His cleverness is *decidedly* above the average .	(*Preposition.*)
He is despised *merely* because he is poor .	(*Conjunction.*)
He sings *unusually* well	(*Adverb.*)

[1] An adverb sometimes, but rarely, can be used to qualify a noun; as:—
The *then* King. The *down* train. The *up* journey.
In such examples it must be said that the adverb is used as an adjective

An Adverb is used **predicatively**, when it is part of the predicate, that is, when it is the complement to some verb :—

The results are *out*. The holidays are *over*.

Examples.

(1) He works *more industriously* than you.

Simple adverb of the Descriptive class, Comparative degree, used attributively to qualify the verb "works."

(2) I have not seen the house *where* you live.

Relative adverb qualifying the verb "live" in its own sentence, and having "house" for its antecedent.

(3) *When* the cat is *away*, the mice play.

When—Relative adverb qualifying the verb "is" in its own sentence, and joining its own sentence "the cat is away" to the sentence "the mice play."

Away—Simple adverb of Place, used predicatively as complement to the verb "is."

109. How to parse Prepositions and Conjunctions.[1] —Care must be taken to distinguish prepositions and conjunctions from each other and from adverbs. The way to distinguish them is to ask yourself, *What work does the word do in the sentence?*

(i.) I have seen this man *before* . . . (*Adverb.*)
(ii.) He stood *before* the door . . . (*Preposition.*)
(iii.) The rain fell *before* we reached home . (*Conjunction.*)

In (i.) *before* is a Simple adverb of Time qualifying "have seen."

In (ii.) *before* is a Preposition having "door" for its object.

In (iii.) *before* is a Conjunction joining its own sentence "we reached home" to the sentence "The rain fell."

In parsing a Conjunction say what words or what sentences it joins together.

Exercise 22.

Parse the words printed in Italics in the following sentences :—

1. He walked *about* the house. 2. He is walking *about*.

[1] The distinction between Co-ordinative and Subordinative conjunctions does not belong to Parsing, but to Analysis : see below. § 116 and § 126.

3. The *above* named book was lost. 4. The sky is *above* the earth. 5. He was *all* covered with mud. 6. We walked *along* the bank of the river. 7. He is going *along* at a great pace. 8. We must rest *before* going *any* farther. 9. Men will reap *as* they sow. 10. *As* rain has fallen, the grass will soon look green. 11. He came *after* a few days. 12. He came a few days *after*. 13. He will go *after* he has dined. 14. He stood *below* me in the class. 15. There is a world *below* and a world *above*. 16. You are working *better* to-day. 17. There is *but* one man present. 18. Who could have done this *but* him? 19. He is a man of common-sense, *but* not learned in books. 20. We could not do anything *else*. 21. He has some real cause for sorrow; *else* he would not weep as he does. 22. He has worked hard *enough* for anything. 23. Whom was this done *by*? 24. The horse is going *by*. 25. All *except* one agreed to this. 26. It was at York that I *first* saw him. 27. He has been ill *for* a long time past. 28. He was much missed; *for* he was a really good man. 29. He was *half* dead with fear. 30. Come *in* and take a seat. 31. You will find him *in* the house. 32. I love Cæsar *less* than Rome. 33. I saw him once *more*. 34. I liked him *most* of all. 35. *Neither* you *nor* I can do that. 36. He must *needs* know the reason of this. 37. Who comes *next*? 38. He stood *next* me in class. 39. I can do *no* more. 40. He fell *off* the saddle. 41. The robber ran *off*. 42. I heard of this *only* yesterday. 43. Take what you like; *only* keep silence. 44. He is *over* ten years of age. 45. The holidays are now *over*. 46. The secret is *out*. 47. I have not seen him *since* Monday last. 48. I took this house four weeks *since*. 49. We must trust you *since* you say so. 50. The men are all *together*. 51 Rocks are *ahead*.

MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS SELECTED FROM PAPERS SET AT VARIOUS PUBLIC EXAMINATIONS.

The questions have been arranged in the following order:—

I. Oxford Preliminary Examinations, p. 110.
II. Cambridge Preliminary Examinations, p. 111.
III. Central Welsh Board, Junior Examinations, p. 114.
IV. College of Preceptors, Third Class Papers, p. 116.

V. Sentences from various different sources, Preliminary, Junior, and Senior, to be corrected or justified, p. 120.
VI. Examples on the Order of Words, p. 123.
VII. Examples to show how the same word can be used in different Parts of Speech, p. 124.

I. Oxford Preliminary Examinations.

First Specimen Paper.

A.

1. Parse fully each word in the following passage :—

Southward, from Surrey's pleasant hills, flew these bright warriors forth.

2. Make short sentences containing—

Over—(*a*) as an Adverb, (*b*) as a Preposition.
Show—(*a*) as a Noun, (*b*) as a Verb.
But—(*a*) as a Preposition, (*b*) as a Conjunction.

3. Write in columns the present tense and past participle of each verb in the following passage :—

I laid down the buck, and unslung my double gun, and threw a stick at the nest, when out shot a large pine-martin, and like a squirrel sprang from tree to tree.

B.

4. What is a Pronoun ? Write down in a column the pronouns in the following sentence, and opposite each state what kind of pronoun it is :—

One of these is mine : are there any that belong to you ?

5. Give the Comparative degree of the following adjectives :—*red, curious, little, lively.*

Second Specimen Paper.

A.

1. Parse fully the verbs and pronouns in the following sentence :—

Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just.

2. Define a Noun. State to what class each noun in the following sentence belongs :—

Farmer John had a good crop of wheat last summer, but it was badly harvested through the laziness of a crowd of reapers.

3. Write down the past tense (1st person sing.) and the past participle of the following verbs :—*set, buy, do, spread, arise, lie* (down).

B.

4. Make short sentences in which—

(*a*) the verb "to be" shall have the meaning of "to exist."
(*b*) the verb "to be" shall be merely copulative.
(*c*) the verb "to tell" shall have a direct and an indirect object.
(*d*) the verb "to make" shall be used actively with two objects.
(*e*) the verb "to make" shall be used passively with two nominatives.

5. Write down the Superlative of the following adverbs :—*well, fast, boldly, little, much.*

II. Cambridge Preliminary Examinations.

First Specimen Paper.

1. Write a sentence containing at least five different parts of speech. Point out in this sentence an example of each of the five, naming the part of speech to which it belongs.

2. Give the feminines corresponding to *governor, lad, mayor,* and give the possessive case plural of the feminine forms corresponding to *drake, earl, nephew, lord.*

State the number of each of the following words :—*them, son's, me, men's, men, whose, she, us.* State also the case or cases in which each may be.

3. What are the Comparatives and Superlatives of *lazy, red, beautiful, cruel, much, grave* ?

Write short sentences containing the word "that" used (*a*) as a Demonstrative pronoun, (*b*) as a Demonstrative adjective, (*c*) as a Relative pronoun.

What is the meaning of "demonstrative" ?

Would you put *a* or *an* before *aim, heir, help, hour, year* ?

4. Parse fully the words in Italics in the following passage :—

Unbending *'midst* the *wintry skies,*
Rears the firm oak *his* vigorous *form,*
And stern in rugged strength *defies*
The *rushing* of the storm.

5. Give in two columns the past tense indicative and the past participle of the following verbs :—*arise, dwell, do, get, lay, lean, thrive.*

Which of these verbs may be used transitively ? What is the meaning of " Transitive " ?

6. What are Subjects in the following sentences ?

(*a*) His money being spent, he left the country.
(*b*) There is no help for it.
(*c*) Where is he ?
(*d*) Riding is a healthy exercise.

7. Write a short sentence in which *by* is used as an adverb, and another sentence in which it is used as a preposition. Do the same with the words *behind, near, since.* Which of these four words can be used as a conjunction ? Write a sentence in which it is so used.

Second Specimen Paper.

1. Name the parts of speech to which the words in Italics in the following sentence belong :—

She sleeps, nor dreams, but *ever* dwells
A *perfect* form in perfect *rest.*

2. Give the feminine forms corresponding to *bachelor, lord, sultan, testator.*

Write down the possessive cases, singular and plural, of *singer, monkey, thief, mistress, he.*

3. Form adjectives from *worth, south, quarrel, glory,* and attach each adjective to a suitable noun.

Give the other degrees of comparison of *dim, famous, shy* ; and of *farther, inner, less.*

Combine in one sentence the following pair of sentences :—

The tree was cut down. The tree was a poplar.

Do the same with the sentences :—

They did not see the Queen. They went to see the Queen.

4. Parse fully the words in Italics in the following passage :—

I *saw* thee *smile*: the sapphire's *blaze*
Beside thee ceased to shine;
It could not match the *living* rays
That filled *that* glance of thine.

5. Give in two columns the first person singular of the past tense indicative and the past participle of the following verbs:—*cast, eat, lean, lend, lie* (*to* lie down), *swell, weave.* Which of these verbs can be used intransitively?

Correct the following where necessary:—

I left the hammer laying on the table.
The captive lay in the dungeon.
We laid down to rest.

6. Point out the *subjects* and *objects* in the following passage:—

For you these cherries I protect,
To you these plums belong:
Sweet is the fruit that you have picked,
But sweeter far your song.

7. Write a sentence in which the word *but* is used as a conjunction, a second in which it is used as a preposition, and a third in which it is used as an adverb.

Third Specimen Paper.

1. Give one instance of a Common noun, one of a Proper noun, and one of a Collective noun.

Write down the plurals of *fox, ox, cliff, life, key, negro, piano.*

2. Give the possessive cases, singular and plural, of *empress, lady, woman.*

What are the masculine forms corresponding to *witch, vixen, hind*?

3. Give the comparatives and superlatives of *free, hot, neat, well, courteous.*

Form adjectives from *disaster, two, wheat,* and adverbs from *gay, holy, other, south, week.*

Correct the following, if necessary:—

I know who I like, it is her who gave me this knife.
Whom do you believe him to be?
Let you and I the battle try.

4. Parse fully the words in italics in the following passage:—

All *along* the valley, *stream that flashest* white,
Deepening thy *voice* with the *deepening* of the night,

All along the valley, where thy waters flow,
I walked with one I loved two and thirty years *ago*.

5. Give in two columns the first person singular of the past tense indicative and the past participle of the following verbs :—*bite, choose, lie* (to lie down), *ride, sing, sit, steal, swear, swim.*

What are the transitive verbs corresponding to *lie* and *sit* ?

Give the negative and the interrogative forms of –

The cat purrs. The tide is ebbing. I will speak.

6. Point out the subjects and objects in the following :—

Alas, how light a cause may move
Dissension between hearts that love,
Hearts that the world in vain had tried,
And sorrow but more closely tied !

7. How do you decide whether a word is a preposition or an adverb ? Write a sentence containing a word used as an adverb.

Parse the words *for* and *until* wherever they occur in the following sentence :—

I will do your work *for* you *until* Tuesday or *until* you return, *for* I promised to do so.

III. Central Welsh Board, Junior Certificate Examinations.

First Specimen Paper.

1. Give the plural form of the following nouns :—*ox, church, wharf, tooth, genius, chief, leaf, brother, penny* ; and the comparative form of the following adjectives :—*holy, fair, tender, little, good, many, old, far.*

2. How do we form the Possessive case of the English noun ?

3. Define (giving two examples in each case) Proper noun, Relative pronoun, Passive voice, Compound sentence.

4. Write sentences illustrating the various uses of the following words :—*the, but, as, such, much.*

5. What tenses and moods occur in the conjugation of the English verb ? Which of these are expressed by the help of Auxiliaries ?

6. Correct, giving in each case your reason for correction :—

(*a*) He is taller than me.
(*b*) Who were you speaking to ?
(*c*) Neither the king nor his minister were at fault.
(*d*) Neither of them were remarkable for precision.

7. Tabulate the different forms of the Personal pronoun.

8. Parse fully every word in the following sentence :—

Into the street the Piper stept,
Smiling first a little smile,
As if he knew what magic slept
In his quiet pipe the while.

9. Analyse :—

(*a*) Into the street the Piper stept.

(*b*) How pregnant sometimes his replies are !

(*c*) Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man.

Second Specimen Paper.

1. How are nouns inflected for the plural ? Give some examples of nouns that form the plural irregularly, and also of nouns that change their meaning in the plural.

2. Define, giving in each case an example :—Cognate Object, Antecedent, Verb of Incomplete Predication, Nominative Absolute, Perfect tense.

3. How are adjectives compared ? Give some examples of defective comparison.

4. Mention the various uses of the Infinitive.

5. Show by means of examples the difference between (*a*) Relative and Interrogative pronoun, (*b*) Preposition and Conjunction, (*c*) Transitive and Intransitive verb, (*d*) Adjective and Adverb, (*e*) Active and Passive voice.

6. Amend the following phrases and sentences :—

(*a*) How sourly these apples taste !

(*b*) Here is a capital novel, which I am going to sit on the ground and read.

(*c*) It is not merely necessary to observe but to meditate.

(*d*) However fine a sight the fleet was by day, it was certainly eclipsed by night.

(*e*) The powers they possess, but cannot make use of them.

(*f*) Colonel Sandys a hot man, and who had more courage than judgment.

(*g*) There were three alternatives open.

(*h*) There was not a shadow of a whisper heard.

(*i*) What do you think of me learning French ?

(*k*) He is a tall man, like his father was.

7. Distinguish between a Strong and a Weak verb. Give the Preterite tense [1] (1st person singular) and Preterite Participle of the following, stating also in each case whether the verb is Strong or Weak :—*shake, buy, shut, tell, take, sting, put, catch, ring, feel.*

8. Analyse the following passage :—

A man *who* has *been* brought up *among* books, and is able *to talk* of nothing *else*, is a *very* indifferent *companion*, and *what* we *call* a *pedant*. But, *methinks*, we should *enlarge* the title, and give it *to* every one that does not know *how* to think out of his profession and *particular* way of life.

9. Parse the words italicised in the above passage.

IV. College of Preceptors, Certificate Examinations, Third Class.

First Specimen Paper.

I have just done somewhat for Ned, which he could not do for himself : I have bound up his hand which he had badly cut. Wiping away some natural tears, he must needs say—"I am ashamed, aunt, that you should see me cry ; but the worst of it is that all this pain is for no good ; whereas when my uncle beats me for misconstruing my Latin, though I cry at the time, all the while I know it is for my advantage."

1. Say what parts of speech the following words are, and give the reason for your answer in each case :—*somewhat, Ned, worst, all, good, whereas, beats, Latin.*

2. Parse fully each of the words in the clause—"aunt, that you should see me cry."

3. Give the subjects of *could do*,[2] *had cut, beats, know*, and the direct objects of *have done, could do*,[2] *wiping*, and *misconstruing*. Explain what you mean by the terms *subject* and *object*.

4. The conjunction *that* occurs twice in the above passage. What pairs of sentences are connected by it ? What sentences are connected by the conjunction *though* ?

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[1] "Preterite" is another name for Past Indefinite. Pluperfect is a name sometimes used for Past Perfect.

[2] This assumes the existence of a Potential mood, formed by *can* or *could*. This mood, however, is not now generally recognised. *Can* is regarded as a Principal, not an Auxiliary verb ; and the Infinitive following is its object ; see § 83 and § 84.

5. What are the following words ending in *ing* ?—*wiping, misconstruing.* Which of them can be replaced by a clause and a conjunction ? Make the change.

6. Point out the words modified by the adverbs *badly, away, needs.*

7. What auxiliary verbs do you find in the given passage ? To what principal verbs are they respectively auxiliary ? Explain what is meant by an *Auxiliary verb.*

8. Write with proper capitals, stops, inverted commas, etc. :—the pass of thermopylæ was favourable to the greeks for the persians could not avail themselves of their superior numbers xerxes sent messengers to leonidas king of sparta bidding him give up his arms he replied come and take them lands were then offered to the defenders of the pass on condition that they should become allies of the great king but the lacedæmonians answered it was their custom to win lands by valour not by treachery.

Second Specimen Paper.

"Friend Sancho," said Don Quixote to him, "I find the approaching night will overtake us ere we can reach Toboso, where I am resolved to pay my vows, receive my benediction, and take my leave of the peerless Dulcinea ; for nothing in this world inspires a knight-errant with so much valour as the smiles of his mistress."

1. Name the parts of speech to which the following words belong, giving in each case the reason for your answer :—*ere, where, peerless, for, knight-errant, as.*

2. Parse as fully as you can :—"I find the approaching night will overtake us."

3. Write down the *subject,* and where possible the *direct object,* of each of the verbs given below. *Tabulate your answer thus :—*

Verb.	Subject.	Direct Object.
said		
can reach		
am resolved		
inspires		

4. Give, in a tabulated form, the Past Indefinite of the Indicative (first person singular only) and the Perfect Participle of all the verbs in the passage.

5. How do you distinguish between a *Personal* pronoun and a *Relative* pronoun ? Write two sentences in illustration.

6. Construct short sentences to show the difference in meaning between the following words, and in each case name the part of speech to which each of these words belongs :—(1) *some* and *sum*, (2) *vain* and *vein*.

7. Name the different ways in which the subject of a sentence may be enlarged, and write two sentences as examples.

8. In the following passage supply the necessary capital letters and put in the stops and inverted commas where necessary : —you are mad said the curate starting up astonished is thy master such a wonderful hero as to fight a giant at two thousand leagues distance then they heard don quixote bawling out stay villain since i have thee here thy scimitar shall but little avail thee.

Third Specimen Paper.

Bramble took the glass off the top of the compass-box, lifted up the card, and then showed me the needle below, which pointed due north. He also showed me the north point above, and then the other points, and made me repeat them as he touched each with his finger.

1. What determines the part of speech a word is ? Point out what each of the following words does in the above passage, and name the part of speech which it is :—*up, and, then, he, also, other.*

2. Parse fully :—" off the top of the compass-box," and " which pointed due north."

3. Write down all the *direct objects* of verbs in the given passage, and also the *verbs* which govern them, and the *subjects* of those verbs. *Arrange your answer in a tabular form thus* :—

Direct Object.	Verb.	Subject.
The escape	Helped	The captain

4. Give the present and the past participles of the verbs *took, lifted, showed, pointed, made, touched.*

5. Write two sentences, each containing a *Relative* pronoun, a *Personal*, and an *Interrogative* pronoun. Draw a single line under the Relative pronoun, two lines under the Personal pronoun, and three under the Interrogative pronoun.

6. In passing from one form of a word to another, when is the final consonant doubled ? Give three instances.

7. Correct or justify the following sentences, giving your reasons :—

(i.) He told me to go and lay down on the bed.
(ii.) Who are you calling for ? Is it me ?
(iii.) Your gold and silver is cankered.
(iv.) The boys have a dozen tennis balls.

8. Write with proper capitals, stops, inverted commas, etc. :—
i opened the boxes and to andersons surprise i counted out gold coin to the amount of four hundred pounds not a bad legacy said mr. wilson then you knew of this of course i answered i have known it some time ever since the attempt to rob her but what are these papers said the lawyer

Fourth Specimen Paper.

Columbus was the first one of the Europeans who set foot in the New World which he had discovered. His men soon followed, and kneeling down they all kissed the ground which they had so long desired to see. They then took solemn possession of the country.

1. Point out what each of the following words does in the above passage, and name the part of speech to which it belongs : —*Columbus, first, on, discovered, soon, solemn.*

2. Parse as fully as you can :—" And kneeling down they all kissed the ground."

3. Write down the *subject*, and where possible the *object*, of each of the verbs given below. *Tabulate your answer thus :—*

Verb.	Subject.	Direct Object.
was		
set		
had desired		
took		

4. Make a list of all the pronouns in the passage, and opposite each write what kind of pronoun it is.

5. Give the meanings of the following prefixes, and two instances of the use of each :—*in, per, dis, re.*

6. Write short sentences containing :—

Jump (*a*) as a noun, (*b*) as a verb.
Up (*a*) as an adverb, (*b*) as a preposition.
That (*a*) as a pronoun, (*b*) as a pronoun of another kind.

7. State clearly the reasons for the corrections made in the following sentences :—

(*a*) "Neither John nor James were there."—*Were* should be *was*.

(*b*) "I am sure it was not him."—*Him* should be *he*.

(*c*) "He resembles one of those men who is always hesitating" —*Is* should be *are*.

8. Write with proper capitals, stops, inverted commas, etc. :— the traveller made three quick steps towards the jail then turning short tell me said he has that unnatural captain sent you nothing to relieve your distress call him not unnatural replied the other gods blessing be upon him he sent me a great deal of money but i made a bad use of it.

V. Correct or justify the Following. Give the Reason of every Correction that you make.

Exercise 23.

(*a*) 1. Let each see to their own. 2. Nobody can talk like he can. 3. Soldiers are tried by court-martials. 4. Neither he nor John say this. 5. These kind are the best. 6. Who do you think I saw yesterday ? 7. Neither he nor I are expected. 8. Time and tide waits for no man. 9. Each of you in their turn will enjoy the benefits to which they are entitled. 10. Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water teem with life. 11. Do you know who you are speaking to ? 12. Neither of them seem to have any idea of their ignorance. 13. They, which do their best, are most likely to succeed. (*Oxford Junior.*)

(*b*) 1. Bacon's "Essays" are the most important of these two books. 2. Do you remember my cousin, whom we thought had settled in Australia ? There is some talk of him returning. 3. Somebody called ; I could not at first tell whom ; but afterwards I found out it was her. 4. They had awoke him, as they said, to tell him that the river had overflown its banks. 5. Travelling along the line, the towers of the castle came in sight. 6. If this be him we mean, let him beware. 7. I saw the pickpocket and policeman on opposite sides of the street. 8. Who did you see at the regatta ? 9. It is unfair to argue like you do. 10. For ever in this humble cell, | Let you and I, my fair one,

dwell. 11. The number of failures were very great. 12. My lawyer is a man whom I know is trustworthy. 13. A thousand weary miles now stretch | Between my love and I. (*Cambridge Junior.*)

(*c*) 1. No sound but their own voices were heard. 2. He is a boy whom I think likely to do well. 3. The phenomena of nature is wonderful. 4. Is she older or younger than him? 5. No one saw him leave the house, but me only. 6. Neither of the opponents were inclined to submit. 7. Each of these classes of men has wishes peculiar to itself. 8. When will we start? 9. I saw a young and old man sitting together. 10. She was the worst of the two. 11. They that backbite their neighbours stealthily, take care to rebuke sharply. 12. If I had not broke your stick, you would never have run home. 13. I saw a black and white man walking together. 14. I am neither an ascetic in theory or practice. 15. Of these mistakes none are very serious. 16. I don't know who he has gone with. (*Preceptors' Third Class.*)

(*d*) 1. On the garden seat was his book and pencil. 2. Who can it be from? 3. The ship with all the passengers were destroyed. 4. No one expressed their opinion so clearly as him. 5. At the club dinner the usual loyal toasts were drank first of all. 6. The steam-engine as well as the telegraph were still unknown. 7. He sings better than ever. 8. Stouter hearts than a woman have quailed in this terrible trial. 9. He has appointed as commander nobody knows who. 10. It is not me he injures so much as himself. 11. Having failed in this experiment, no further trial was made. (*Preceptors' Third Class.*)

(*e*) 1. It is sometimes said that the Nile is longer than all the rivers of the eastern and western hemispheres. During the past week it has overflown its right and left banks. 2. Each of the three last were expected to have stopped and voted. 3. Judging from the time taken, the race was rowed quicker than in all previous years. 4. More than one swimming-prize is to be given for boys of thirteen years old. 5. Whom do you think I met to-day? Both your cousins! The oldest had on a new and a most fashionable pair of boots, like you saw Henry wearing yesterday. 6. I don't believe you have got a better bicycle or even as good as me. 7. He must decide between you and I going to him or him coming to us. 8. There goes John with

both his dogs on either side of him. 9. When Nelson was ill, he complained of "the servants letting me lay as if a log, and take no notice." 10. I have now the perfect use of all my limbs except the left arm, which I can hardly tell what is the matter with it. 11. From my shoulder to my fingers' ends are as if half dead. (*Cambridge Senior.*)

(*f*) 1. He carried a jaunty sort of stick. 2. They demanded a fair day's wage for a fair day's work. 3. It is not that offends. 4. Now either spoke as hope or fear impressed | Each their alternate triumph in his breast. 5. Your betters have endured me say my mind. 6. After doing the work, his face brightened. 7. Three parts of him is ours already. 8. The wealth of London is greater than Oxford. 9. This is a dress of my mother's. 10. He said that he will soon be back. 11. Nothing but rough games please the boys. 12. 'Twas Love's mistake who fancied what it feared. 13. She suffers hourly more than me. 14. He comes; nor want nor cold his course delay. (*Oxford Senior.*)

(*g*) 1. You and her will be too late without you start soon. 2. Me and he can manage it without you interfering. 3. Let who will say no, you shall go with Will and I. 4. Each of these cathedrals were founded in the two-hundredth and first year after the death of Alfred. 5. Good order, and not mean savings, produce great profit. 6. The literary and commercial value of a book are not necessarily the same. 7. Neither James nor John were there. 8. I fully approve of your going. 9. Let you and I take our own course. 10. Who are going with? 11. The Palmer (or De Wilton, whom he really was). 12. The idle and industrious men came together. 13. He won't go, I don't believe. 14. If William goes to-morrow, will I go to? 15. He said he will give the book to whoever he pleased. 16. A certain portion of auxiliaries were allotted to each legion. 17. To be sold, the stock of Mr. Smith's left-off business. 18. If I had been there, you would not have attempted to have done that. 19. You know that I am, not less than him, a despiser of the multitude. (*Preceptors' Second Class.*)

(*h*) 1. Whom did you say the man was who spoke to you just now? 2. He ran so fastly up the hill that neither Jean or me could overtake him. 3. Will you allow my brother and I to finish what we have begun? 4. Adversity both teach men to think and to feel. 5. At the bottom of the road lay a stream

to wide to jump. 6. Who do you think was there ? 7. Whom are you going with ? 8. They gained nothing by it, and neither did you. 9. They walked by two's and three's. 10. It was my own stupid pride prevented me going. 11. We sorrow not as them that have no hope. 12. I think I will be gone by the time you come. 13. I cannot tell if it be wise or no. 14. Land is not thought to be so good a security as formerly. 15. He was one of the noblest men that has appeared in this century. 16. I should have liked to have been shown to-day the full cost of this war. 17. Anybody may go for the key : I care not who. 18. A few hours' consideration are quite enough. 19. This is the man whom I believed rescued the dog. 20. Nelson was greater than any sailor of his time. 21. He cannot run faster than neither me or John. 22. My partner was a much greater gainer than me by this arrangement. 23. I had ought to be punctual. 24. The attack of the enemy upon our left was foiled : they then endeavoured to outflank the Egyptians with the bulk of their forces. 25. Men of greatest learning have spent their time in finding out the dimensions, and even weight, of the planets. (*Preceptors' Second Class.*)

VI. On the Order of Words.

Exercise 24.

The great rule to be observed in fixing the order of words is this :—*Things which are to be thought of together must be mentioned together.* So a word or phrase should always be placed as close as the context allows to the word or phrase that it is meant to go with.

Thus an adjective or adjective-equivalent must be kept as close as possible to its noun or pronoun ; a verb to its object or to its complement ; an adverb or adverb-equivalent to the word that it is intended to qualify ; a preposition to its object ; a relative pronoun to its antecedent.

The sense of a sentence very often depends upon the order of the words, as in the following examples :—

Books authorised by teachers as fit for use.
Books authorised as fit for use by teachers.

Improve, if necessary, the order of words in the following sentences :—

(*a*) 1. The experiment of entrusting lodgers with keys has only failed in a few instances. 2. Ellen went with me too. 3. In thirty-seven wrecks only five lives were fortunately lost. 4. The one was nearly dressed in the same way as the other. 5. She was only allowed to occupy the smaller room. 6. The following verses were written by a young man who has long since been dead for his own amusement. (*Oxford, Cambridge, Preceptors'*.)

(*b*) 1. He was shot by a secretary who was under notice to quit and with whom he was finding fault, fortunately without effect. 2. You have already been informed of the sale of Ford's theatre, where Mr. Lincoln was assassinated, for religious purposes. 3. The Moor, seizing a bolster, full of rage and fury, smothers her. 4. Being early killed, I sent a party in search of his mangled body. (*London Matriculation.*)

(*c*) 1. The chair cost ten shillings on which he sat. 2. A gang of robbers entered the house at night armed from head to foot. 3. He repeated those lines after he had read them once with perfect accuracy. 4. They found the house on the top of a hill where they wished to spend the night. 5. The general ordered indignantly the deserters to be shot. 6. An unquestioned man of genius. 7. He cannot be said to have died prematurely whose work was finished, nor does he deserve to be lamented, who died so full of honours (*Southey*). 8. I never remember to have felt an event more deeply than Horner's death. 9. The death occurred last week in Madrid of Mr. W. Macpherson, formerly British vice-consul at Seville (*Times Weekly*, 11th Feb. 1898). 10. No one is entitled to form or express an opinion on the relations between Nelson and Lady Hamilton, or on the parentage of Horatio, who has not carefully studied the letters to be found in this invaluable collection (*Times Weekly*, 4th March 1898).

VII. Construct Short Sentences or Phrases showing how the same Word can be used in different Parts of Speech.

A.—(1) Indefinite article ; (2) disguised preposition.

After. — (1) adverb ; (2) preposition ; (3) conjunction ; (4) in composition.

All.—(1) adjective of quantity; (2) adjective of number; (3) noun; (4) adverb.

Any.—(1) adjective; (2) adverb.

As.—(1) Relative pronoun; (2) Relative adverb denoting (*a*) time, (*b*) manner, (*c*) state, (*d*) extent, (*e*) reason; (3) in elliptical phrases.

Awake.—(1) verb; (2) adverb.

Back.—(1) noun; (2) adverb; (3) verb; (4) in composition.

Before.—(1) adverb; (2) preposition; (3) conjunction.

Behind.—(1) adverb; (2) preposition.

Better.—(1) adjective; (2) adverb; (3) noun; (4) verb.

Both.—(1) adjective; (2) conjunction.

But.—(1) preposition; (2) adverb; (3) co-ordinate conjunction; (4) subordinate conjunction.

By.—(1) adverb; (2) preposition; (3) in composition.

Calm.—(1) adjective; (2) noun; (3) verb.

Chief, cold, common.—(1) adjective; (2) noun.

Clear, correct, corrupt.—(1) adjective; (2) verb.

Close.—(1) adjective; (2) adverb; (3) noun; (4) verb.

Compact, compound, content.—(1) adjective; (2) noun; (3) verb.

Dainty, dark, dead, deep, due.—(1) adjective; (2) noun.

Damp, desert, double, dread.—(1) adjective; (2) noun; (3) verb.

Direct, dull.—(1) adjective; (2) verb.

Down.—(1) noun; (2) adverb; (3) preposition.

Early.—(1) adjective; (2) adverb.

Either.—(1) adjective; (2) conjunction.

Elect.—(1) verb; (2) adjective; (3) noun.

Elder, English, evil, extreme.—(1) adjective; (2) noun.

Else.—(1) adverb; (2) conjunction.

Empty, equal.—(1) adjective; (2) verb.

Enough.—(1) adverb; (2) adjective; (3) noun.

Faint.—(1) adjective; (2) verb.

Far, fast.—(1) adverb; (2) adjective.

Few.—(1) adjective; (2) noun.

Firm.—(1) adjective; (2) noun.

First.—(1) adjective; (2) adverb.

Fit.—(1) adjective; (2) noun; (3) verb.

For.—(1) preposition ; (2) conjunction.
Four.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun ; (3) in composition.
Further.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb ; (3) verb.

Gold, good, Greek.—(1) noun ; (2) adjective.

Half.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun ; (3) adverb.
Hard.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb.

Ill.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb.
Invalid.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun.

Late, last, little, less, least.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb.
Light (luminous).—(1) adjective ; (2) noun ; (3) verb.
Long.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb ; (3) verb.
Loose.—(1) adjective ; (2) verb.

Many.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun.
Marble, mean (middle), **middle.**—(1) noun ; (2) adjective.
Might.—(1) verb ; (2) noun.
Model.—(1) noun ; (2) adjective ; (3) verb.
More.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb ; (3) noun.
Most.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb ; (3) noun.

Narrow.—(1) adjective ; (2) verb.
Native, new, novel, nuptial.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun.
Near.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb ; (3) preposition ; (4) verb.
Needs.—(1) verb ; (2) adverb ; (3) noun.
Neither.—(1) adjective ; (2) conjunction.
Next, no.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb.
None.—(1) Negative pronoun ; (2) adverb.

Odd.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun.
Off, on.—(1) preposition ; (2) adverb.
One.—(1) adjective ; (2) pronoun.
Only.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb ; (3) conjunction.
Open.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun ; (3) verb.
Other.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun.
Over.—(1) preposition ; (2) adverb.
Own.—(1) adjective ; (2) verb.

Past.—(1) adjective ; (2) preposition ; (3) adverb.
Patent.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun ; (3) verb.
Perfect.—(1) adjective ; (2) verb.
Public.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun.

Quack, quiet.—(1) verb ; (2) noun ; (3) adjective.
Quick.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun.

Rapid.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun.
Right, rival.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun ; (3) verb.
Round.—(1) adj. ; (2) prep. ; (3) adverb ; (4) verb ; (5) noun.

Salt, set.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun ; (3) verb.
Save.—(1) verb ; (2) preposition.
Since.—(1) preposition ; (2) adverb ; (3) conjunction.
So.—(1) adverb ; (2) conjunction.
Some.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb.
Somewhat.—(1) adverb ; (2) noun.
Still.—(1) adjective ; (2) adverb ; (3) verb.
Such.—(1) adjective ; (2) pronoun.

Than.—(1) conjunction ; (2) preposition.
That.—(1) adjective ; (2) Demonstrative pronoun ; (3) Relative pronoun ; (4) conjunction.
The.—(1) Definite article ; (2) adverb.
Through, to, under, up.—(1) preposition ; (2) adverb
Till.—(1) preposition ; (2) conjunction.
Trim.—(1) adjective ; (2) noun ; (3) verb.

Well.—(1) adverb ; (2) conjunction ; (3) noun.
What.—(1) Interrogative pronoun ; (2) Relative pronoun ; (3) adverb.
While—(1) noun ; (2) conjunction.

Yet.—(1) conjunction ; (2) adverb.

PART IV.—ANALYSIS, CONVERSION, AND SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES: SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

CHAPTER XXIV.—SENTENCES SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX.

110. Simple Sentence.—A Simple sentence (Lat. *simplex*, single-fold) is one that has *only one* **Finite** *verb* expressed or understood.

Subject.	*Predicate.*
The merchant, having much property to sell,	*caused* all his goods to be conveyed on camels, there being no railway in that country.

In this sentence there are five different verbs, "having," "to sell," "caused," "to be conveyed," "being." Of these only one, viz. "caused," is *finite*, as this is the only verb out of the five which has or could have a Subject attached to it. Since there is only one Finite verb, the sentence is Simple.

111. Compound Sentence.—A compound sentence is one made up of two or more *Co-ordinate* clauses. (This definition is not quite complete, but it will suffice for the present. A complete definition is given below in § 131.)

Clauses are said to be Co-ordinate, when one can be separated from the other so that each makes an independent sentence and gives an independent sense.

The sun rose with power, *and* the fog dispersed.
He called at my house, *but* I was not at home.

Note.—Observe the difference between **Sentence, Clause,** and **Phrase.** (1) A sentence is a combination of words that contains at least one subject and one predicate. (If a subject as a predicate is absent, but implied, the combination, though elliptical, is still a sentence.) (2) A sentence which is *part of a larger sentence* is called a clause. (3) A phrase is a combination of words that *does not contain a predicate* either expressed or understood; as "turning to the left" (participial phrase), "on a hill" (adjectival or adverbial phrase), "because of" (prepositional phrase).

112. **Complex Sentence.**—A Complex sentence consists of a Principal clause (*i.e.* the clause containing the main *verb* of the sentence) with one or more Subordinate or dependent clauses.

Complex— A merchant, who had much property to sell, *caused* all his goods to be conveyed on camels, as there was no railway in that country.

Simple— A merchant, having much property to sell, *caused* all his goods to be conveyed on camels, there being no railway in that country.

The two sentences mean precisely the same thing, and both have a Finite verb in common, "caused." But in other respects they are very different. In the latter there is but *one* Finite verb, "caused," and therefore the sentence is Simple. In the former, besides the Finite verb "caused," there are two more Finite verbs, "had" and "was," and therefore the sentence must be either Complex or Compound. Which is it?

It is not Compound, but Complex, because—(1) the clause "who had much property to sell" is connected with the noun *merchant*, which it qualifies as an adjective would do; and (2) the clause "as there was no railway in that country" is connected with the verb *caused*, which it qualifies as an adverb would do. Neither of these clauses can stand alone. So there is one Principal or Containing clause and two Subordinate or Contained clauses.

113. There are three kinds of Subordinate clauses—the Noun-clause, the Adjective-clause, and the Adverb-clause; and these are defined as follows :—

I. *A Noun-clause is one which does the work of a noun in relation to some* **word** *in some other clause.*

II. *An Adjective-clause is one which does the work of an adjective in relation to some* **word** *in some other clause.*

III. *An Adverb-clause is one which does the work of an adverb in relation to some* **word** *in some other clause.*

Note.—The same clause may be a Noun-clause in one context, an Adjective-clause in another, and an Adverb-clause in another.

Where Moses was buried is still unknown.
—Noun-clause, subject to the verb "is."
No one has seen the place *where Moses was buried.*
—Adj.-clause, qualifying the noun "place."
Without knowing it the Arabs encamped *where Moses was buried.*
—Adverb-clause qualifying the verb "encamped."

I. *The Noun-clause.*

114. A Noun-clause is subject to all the liabilities and duties of a noun proper. It may therefore be the subject to a verb, the object to a verb, the object to a preposition, the complement of a verb, or in apposition with a noun :—

That he will come back soon is certain . . . *Subj. to verb.*
I shall be glad to know *when you will return* . *Obj. to verb.*
This will sell for *what it is worth* . . . *Obj. to prep.*
This is exactly *what I expected* . . . *Compl. to verb.*
The rumour *that he is sick* is false . . . *App. to noun.*

Note 1.—From the above examples it will be seen that a Noun-clause can be introduced either by the Conjunction "*that*" or by a Relative pronoun or by a Relative adverb. Sometimes, however, the Conjunction *that* is left out :—

It seems (that) he is not clever.

Note 2.—A clause containing the very words used by a speaker is another form of Noun-clause :—

All that he said was "*I have seen you before.*"

Here the italicised clause is the complement to the verb "was."

Exercise 25

Pick out the Noun-clause or clauses in each of the following, and say whether it is the Subject to some verb, or the Object to some verb, or the Object to some preposition, or the Complement to some verb, or in Apposition to some noun expressed. Supply the Conjunction "that" *whenever it has been left out :—*

1. No one knows when he will come, or whether he will come at all, or whether he is even alive.
2. How this came to pass is not known to any one.
3. What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander.
4. It is quite evident rain will fall to-day.
5. The Equator shows where days and nights are of equal length.
6. What is one man's meat is another man's poison.
7. You must know that the air is never quite at rest.
8. I think I shall never clearly understand this.
9. We heard the school would open in ten days' time.
10. The name "Volcano" indicates the belief of the ancient Greeks, that the burning hills of the Mediterranean were the workshops of the divine blacksmith, Vulcan.
11. Even a feather shows which way the wind is blowing.
12. Whatever faculty man has is improved by use.
13. The fool hath said in his heart, "There is no God."
14. "Know thyself," was the advice given us by a Greek sage.
15. He did not know that his father had been shot.
16. The fact that you have not signed your name to a letter shows that you lack moral courage.
17. It will be easily understood how useful even the simplest weapons were to the first dwellers on the earth.
18. The question first occurring to the mind of a savage is how is fire to be made.
19. Common sense soon taught him that fire could be produced by rubbing two sticks together.
20. In chipping their flint weapons men must have seen that fire occasionally flashed out.
21. We learn from travellers that savages can produce fire in a few seconds.
22. He shouted out to the thief, "Leave this house."
23. We cannot rely on what he says.

24. It is quite evident you have made a mistake.

25. It was very unfortunate that you were taken ill.

26. He was a man of fine character except that he was rather timid.

II. *Adjective-clause.*

115. An Adjective-clause has but one function, viz. to qualify some noun or pronoun belonging to some other clause. In doing this it simply does the work of an adjective proper. An Adjective-clause is introduced by a Relative pronoun or by a Relative adverb. The noun or pronoun that stands as antecedent to the Relative pronoun or Relative adverb, is the *word* (§ 113, II.) qualified by the Adjective-clause.

A man *who* has just come inquired after you.
This is not the book *that* I chose.
This is not such a horse *as* I should have bought.
We found it in the place *where* we had left it.

Note.—The Relative pronoun (when the case would be Objective) is sometimes left out. (It is never left out when the case is either Nominative or Possessive.)

The food (that or which) he needed was sent.

Exercise 26.

Pick out the Adjective-clause or clauses in each of the following examples, and point out the noun or pronoun qualified by it in some other clause. If the Relative pronoun has been omitted anywhere, supply it :—

1. Man has the power of making instruments, which bring into view stars, whose light has taken a thousand years to reach the earth.

2. The first thing that man needed was some sharp-edged tool.

3. The exact time when the theft was committed was never found out.

4. The man by whom the theft was committed has been caught.

5. The house we lived in has fallen down.

6. This is the same story that I heard ten years ago.

7. It's an ill wind that blows no one any good.

8. This is not such a book as I should have chosen.

9. He made his living by the presents he received from the men he served.

10. All that glitters is not gold.

11. In ponds, from which but a week before the wind blew clouds of dust, men now catch the re-animated fish.

12. A river is joined at places by tributaries that swell its waters.

13. Of what use is a knowledge of books to him who fails to practise virtue ?

14. Fortune selects him for her lord, who reflects before acting.

15. Springs are fed by rain, which has percolated through the rocks or soil.

16. Nuncoomar prepared to die with that quiet fortitude with which the Bengalee, so backward, as a rule, in personal conflict, often encounters calamities for which there is no remedy.

17. I have seen the house where Shakespeare was born.

18. The plan you acted on has answered well.

19. They accepted every plan we proposed.

20. Surely the story you are telling me is not true.

21. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just.

22. The night is long that never finds the day.

III. *The Adverb-clause.*

116. An Adverb-clause does the work of an adverb to some verb, adjective, or adverb belonging to some other clause.

Those conjunctions which are used for introducing an adverb-clause are called Subordinative.

Principal Clause.	*Adverb-Clause.*	*Adverbial Relation.*
He will succeed .	*because* he works hard . . .	*Reason or Cause*
He worked so hard	*that* he was taken ill	*Result or Effect.*
He took medicine	*that* he might get well . . .	*Purpose.*
I will do this .	*if* I am allowed .	*Condition.*
He is honest .	*although* he is poor .	*Concession or Contrast.*
He likes you more	*than* (he likes) me .	*Comparison.*
He likes you	*as much as* I do .	*Comparison.*

Principal Clause.	*Adverb-Clause.*	*Adverbial Relation.*
Men will reap .	*as* they sow .	. *Extent or Manner.*
The pain ceased .	**when* the dentist came in .	. *Time.*
Fools rush in .	**where* angels fear to tread .	. *Place.*

Note.—Those conjunctions which are marked with an asterisk, namely *when, where,* are also known as **Relative** or **Conjunctive** adverbs. See § 59. To the same class belong the words *how, why, whether, whither.*

117. After the conjunctions *though, when, unless, till, if, whether . . . or,* and *while,* the Predicate-verb "**to be**" in some finite form is often understood. This must be supplied in the Analysis.

Though (*he was*) much alarmed, he did not lose all hope.
He sprained his foot, while (*he was*) walking in the dark.
His opinion, whether (*it is*) right or wrong, does not concern me.

118. When an adverb-clause is introduced by "**than**," its Predicate-Verb is sometimes not expressed; it must therefore be borrowed from the clause to which it is subordinate :—

He loves you better than (he loves) me.
He loves you better than I (love you).

Exercise 27.

Pick out the Adverb-clause or clauses in the following. Show what word or phrase is qualified by every such clause, and what Adverbial relation is denoted thereby :—

1. He will succeed, because he has worked hard.
2. Men engage in some work, that they may earn a living.
3. He threatened to beat him, unless he confessed.
4. He was always honest, although he was poor.
5. This is not true, so far as I can tell.
6. He likes you as much as I do.
7. He tried for a long time before he succeeded.
8. Let us go to bed, as it is now late.
9. He walked with care, lest he should stumble.

10. I agree to this, provided you sign your name.

11. Though he punish me, yet will I trust in him.

12. He returned home, after he had finished the work.

13. Prove a friend, before you trust him.

14. When the cat's away, the mice play.

15. He persevered so steadily, that he succeeded at last.

16. I will let off this man, who has been well punished already.

17. He sees very well, considering that he is sixty years of age.

18. I gave him a prize, that he might work harder next year.

19. They deserted their former associate, who had become poor and unfortunate.

20. As the tree falls, so will it lie.

21. Ever since we left the house, it has not ceased raining.

22. I should be glad to lend you that money, if I had as much in my own pocket.

23. Murder, though it have no tongue, will yet speak.

24. Unless you leave the house at once, I will send for a policeman.

25. A jackal, while prowling about the suburbs of a town, slipped into an indigo tank; and not being able to get out he laid himself down, so that he might be taken for dead.

26. Ambassadors were sent from Sparta, who should sue for peace.

CHAPTER XXV.—THE METHOD OF ANALYSIS.

119. Form of Analysis. — The following form will be sufficient for the purposes of this chapter. The fourth example is a Complex sentence; the other three are Simple sentences :—

A man convinced against his will is of the same opinion still.

He made himself mean and of no reputation.

The second master of the school has been teaching my sons Euclid since Thursday last.

Whom the gods love die young.

I. Subject.		II. Predicate.			
			Completion of Finite Verb.		
Nominative or Equivalent.	Enlargement of Nominative.	Finite Verb.	Object. (1) Direct or (2) Indirect.	Complement.	Extension of Finite Verb.
1	2	3	4	5	6
man	(1) A (2) convinced against his will	is	...	of the same opinion	still.
He	...	made	himself	mean and of no reputation.	
master	(1) The (2) second (3) of the school	has been teaching	(1) *Direct* Euclid (2) *Indirect* my sons	...	since Thursday last.
Whom the gods love	...	die	...	young	

120. **Nominative or its equivalent:** see heading to col. 1. This is the chief part of the Subject, and when there is no enlargement, it is the only part. It is this that fixes the number and person of the Finite verb. Its most typical form is that of a noun or pronoun in the Nominative case. This is sometimes called the **Subject-word**, so as to distinguish it from what is called the Enlargement.

The following is a list of the various forms in which the Subject-word or its equivalent can be expressed. There is no need to commit this list of forms to memory. They are enumerated to show what the student may expect to find.

(1) **Noun.**—A *ship* went out to sea yesterday.
(2) **Adj. used as Noun.**—The *brave* are always respected.
(3) **Pronoun.**—*He* (some one previously named) has gone.
(4) **Noun-Infinitive.**—*To walk* regularly is good for health.
(5) **Gerund or Verbal noun.**—*Reading* is good for the mind.

(6) **Noun-phrase.**—*How to do this* is a difficult question.

(7) **Noun-clause.** —*Whom the gods love* die young.

Note 1.—Sometimes a sentence begins with "it," and the Subject is placed after the verb: "*It* is easy to do this." Here the "it" is redundant, and may be left out in the analysis:—"To do this is easy."

Note 2.—When the Finite verb is in the Imperative mood, the Nominative is understood, as, *go*! Here *go* is the Finite verb, and *thou* or *you* is the implied Nominative.

121. **Enlargement**: see heading to col. 2. The most typical form is an Adjective. We call this "*enlargement*," because an adjective, according to the definition given, is a word that adds to or *enlarges* the meaning of a noun or pronoun.

The following is a list of the various forms in which an "enlargement" can be expressed. The list is long, but there is no need to commit it to memory.

(1) **Adjective.**—*Just* men deserve to prosper.

(2) **Participle.**—A *fertilising* shower fell to-day.

(3) **Qualifying Infin.**—Water *to drink* is scarce in this place.

(4) **Possessive noun or pronoun.**—*Your* teacher has come.

(5) **Noun used as Adj.** (§ 98).—The *village* school opens to-day.

(6) **Verbal noun used as Adj.**—*Drinking* water is scarce here.

(7) **Prep. with object.**—A man *of virtue* does not tell lies.

(8) **Adverb with Def. article.**—*The then* king died suddenly.

(9) **Noun in Apposition.**—Charles, my *son*, has come.

(10) **Noun-clause in Appos.**—The rumour *that he was dead* is false.

(11) **Adjective-clause.**—The house *in which we live* has been sold.

122. **Finite verb**: see heading to col. 3. This is the chief part of the predicate, and, when the verb is Intransitive and requires no Complement, it can be the only part; as, "Hogs *grunt*."

If the tense or mood of the Finite verb is formed, not by inflection, but by the help of one or more of the six Auxiliary verbs (see § 79), remember that the Auxiliary verb or verbs and the Principal verb together make up the "Finite verb," and *must be mentioned together* in column 3.

Subject.	Finite Verb.	Object.
I	have been examining	the pictures.

But if the previous verb is not Auxiliary, as "*will*," for instance, when it occurs in the *first* person of the Future tense (§ 80), in such a sentence *will* alone makes the Finite verb, and the Noun-Infinitive that follows is its Object :—

Subject.	Finite Verb	Object.
I	will (= I intend)	see him to-morrow. (= to see him, etc.)

123. **Object, Direct or Indirect :** see col. 4. The different forms in which a *Direct* object can be expressed are the same as those in which the Nominative can be expressed (§ 120). On Direct and Indirect see § 93.

(1) **Noun.**—The snake bit the *man*.
(2) **Adj. used as Noun.**—He satisfied the *public*.
(3) **Pronoun.**—My friend will not deceive *me*.
(4) **Noun Infinitive.**—He deserves *to succeed*.
(5) **Gerund or Verbal noun.**—He likes *riding*.
(6) **Noun-phrase.**—We did not know *how to do it*.
(7) **Noun-clause.**—We do not know *who he is*.

There are only two forms in which an *Indirect* object can be expressed, viz. a noun or some personal pronoun :—

He gave *James* a book . . . . (*Trans. verb.*)
He overslept *himself* . . . . . (*Intrans. verb.*)

124. **Complement :** see heading to col. 5. The following are the various forms in which a Complement can be expressed. The student will no doubt remember from

what he has learnt in § 63 that a verb followed by a Complement may be either Transitive or Intransitive, the Complement in the former case being objective, in the latter subjective.

The various forms of Complement should not be committed to memory. They are given merely to show the student what he may expect to find.

(1) **Noun**	The citizens made him their *king*	(*Obj.*)
	That beggar turned out a *thief*	(*Subj.*)
(2) **Possessive**	She made A.'s quarrel *her own*	(*Obj.*)
	This book is *mine*, not *James's*	(*Subj.*)
(3) **Adjective**	The judge set the prisoner *free*	(*Obj.*)
	The prisoner has been set *free*	(*Subj.*)
(4) **Participle**	They found her *weeping*	(*Obj.*)
	He seemed much *pleased*	(*Subj.*)
(5) **Prep. with object**	I prefer a dog *to a cat*	(*Obj.*)
	He is *in a sad plight*	(*Subj.*)
(6) **Qualifying Infinitive**	I like a thief *to be punished*	(*Obj.*)
	This house is *to let*	(*Subj.*)
(7) **Adverb**	That noise sent him *asleep*	(*Obj.*)
	The man has fallen *asleep*	(*Subj.*)
(8) **Noun-clause**	We have made him *what he is*	(*Obj.*)
	The result is *what we expected*	(*Subj.*)

125. Extension : see heading to col. 6. The most typical form is an Adverb. We call this "*extension*," because an adverb, according to the definition given, is a word that adds to or *extends* the meaning of the word with which it is connected.

Two points should be noticed : (1) In the analysis of sentences (not in parsing, which is a different kind of operation), extension applies *only to the Finite verb* of its own clause : if an adverb or adverb-equivalent belongs to any part of a sentence except the Finite verb, it must not be placed in column 6. (2) " Extension " means the same thing as " enlargement." But as one relates to the Finite verb, and the other to the Nominative or its equivalent, it is convenient in analysing sentences to give them separate names.

Enlargement and Extension are sometimes called by the name of **Adjunct**, the former being of course adjectival, the latter adverbial.

(1) **Adverb.**—He slept *soundly.*
(2) **Prep. with object.**—He slept *for six hours.*
(3) **Qualifying Infin.**—He came *to see* the horse.
(4) **Adverbial objective.**—Bind him *hand and foot.*
(5) **Absolute phrase.**—We all set off, *he remaining behind.*
(6) **Adverb-clause.**—We all set off, *while he remained behind.*

Note.—The student is reminded that the adverb *there*, in such a context as that described in § 40, (*e*) **Place** is merely introductory, and has no adverbial force. When it is so used, it must not be entered in the Extension-column. It must be simply left out.

Analyse each of the following sentences, using the model given in § 119, *and say whether it is Simple or Complex.*

1. He was the only son left to his widowed mother.
2. The sun is darting its rays from the edge of that cloud.
3. The king himself was willing to surrender.
4. The firm sent him out on a voyage of discovery.
5. Who steals my purse steals trash.
6. He deserves all the success that he can get.
7. The earnest endeavour of the Czar was to secure peace.
8. He called them up to explain to them his decision.
9. What to say or do at such a time was a puzzle.
10. Sir Isaac Newton explained the ebb and flow of the tides.
11. He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.
12. This is what they call a very modest request.
13. The thief was ordered to be locked up.
14. The night being now far spent, we must go no further.
15. Thy father and I sought thee sorrowing.
16. It is easy to be wise after the event.
17. Whatever he says is right in his own opinion.
18. I cannot foresee what the consequences will be.
19. They sat themselves down on the bank to rest.
20. Fare thee well !—*Byron.*
21. Why is there so much wailing on board your ship ?
22. They found the soldiers encamped on Salisbury Plain.
23. There are very few houses to let in this town.

24. They questioned him eagerly about the voyage.
25. It is never too late to mend.
26. The righteous shall be had in everlasting remembrance
27. He gave his eldest son the first choice.
28. Praising a man is not always to his benefit.
29. He told me with much sorrow what he had done.
30. I hope soon to take up the study of history.
31. He who complies against his will
Is of the same opinion still.
32. Being so far from her own country, she begged me to take her back in my ship.
33. The above remarks are well worthy of attention.
34. I prefer riding a bicycle to riding a horse.
35. The old woman told him the sad story weeping.
36. One day he went to work in the garden.
37. His father died when he was ten years old.
38. He failed to fulfil his engagement punctually.
39. To place pleasure before duty is the mark of a fool.
40. I never knew any one so difficult to manage.
41. What puzzles me most is his quickness of hand.
42. My friend the carpenter's health has improved since yesterday.
43. The life of a hunter has no attractions for me.
44. He told me how, when, and where to find the thief.
45. I am not able to satisfy your curiosity.
46. Shortly after, he fitted out another ship for himself.
47. Youth and experience seldom exist together.
48. Digging is a very healthy form of exercise.
49. His jealousy for the honour of his calling is commendable.
50. How to answer such a question is beyond me.
51. I will tell you when I feel better.
52. I begin to feel better already.
53. The hope that he will soon recover is groundless.
54. That tree is above a hundred feet high.
55. I cannot satisfy your curiosity.
56. He walked ten miles without once sitting down.
57. What you have still to learn is perseverance.
58. The poor are always amongst us.
59. He ought not to have left his friend in the lurch.
60. How much do these poor men owe you ?
61. The sailors overslept themselves next morning.

62. A thief should not go unpunished.
63. We were afloat on the river by 4 o'clock.
64. The result that we had so long waited for is out at last.
65. Though all his friends deserted him, he stood firm.
66. Why are all these men in such a hurry ?
67. The innocent often suffer for the guilty.
68. Many of us had no sleep last night.
69. My son has learnt how to ride a bicycle.
70. The proof of the pudding is in the eating.
71. You cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's ear.
72. Two hundred workmen have gone on strike.
73. What you offer to do is not what I want.
74. They appointed him trustee of the estate.
75. The ship having anchored, we can go ashore.
76. Alexander the Great, the son of Philip, conquered the king of Persia.
77. A man to carry my box must be sent for.
78. How he could have made such a mistake is a mystery.
79. There is no happiness without health.
80. A resting place could not be found.
81. What has made him so down-hearted is unknown to us.
82. To work and rest alternately is the common lot of man.
83. He loved nothing but vain and foolish pursuits.
84. He does not deserve to be more liberally treated.
85. Jonathan, the friend of David, refused the kingdom.
86. The excuse he made was not accepted.
87. God's ways are different from ours.
88. All men think all men mortal but themselves.
89. Those days have passed never to return.
90. However much you may try you will not deceive me.
91. He went away meditating on what he had heard.
92. To start in business without capital is almost impossible.
93. The firm have taken me into partnership.
94. On the completion of his schooling he was sent out to one of the colonies.
95. The last voyage of Sir Walter Raleigh was to the Orinoco river.
96. What we have seen is not what we expected.
97. The evil which men do lives after them.
98. The good is oft interred with their bones.

CHAPTER XXVI.—COMPOUND SENTENCES.

126. A **Compound** sentence is one made up of two or more **Co-ordinate** (that is, co-equal or independent) clauses. See § 111.

Those conjunctions which are used for binding together the different clauses, of which a Compound sentence is made up, are called Co-ordinative.

Co-ordinative conjunctions are distinguished into—

(1) **Cumulative** (adding);
(2) **Alternative** (offering a choice);
(3) **Adversative** (expressing a contrast or a difference);
(4) **Illative** (drawing an inference).

The following examples will suffice :—

(1) The sun rose with power, *and* the fog dispersed (*Cumulative.*)
(2) Either he must leave the house *or* I (must leave the house) . . . . . (*Alternative.*)
(3) He called at my house, *but* I did not see him . (*Adversative.*)
(4) He came back tired ; *for* he had walked all day (*Illative.*)

127. Co-ordinate clauses can also be joined together by a Relative pronoun or Relative adverb, provided it is used in a parenthetical or merely continuative sense, and not in a restrictive or qualifying sense.

He met John, *who* was in London at that time (*Contin.*)
He met the man with whom he had made an appointment (*Restrict.*)

128. **Contracted Sentences.**—Compound sentences often appear in a contracted or shortened form, so as to avoid the needless repetition of the same word :—

(*a*) When there are *two Finite verbs to the same Nominative,* the Nominative is not usually mentioned more than once, but it must be repeated in the Analysis :—

(1) The sun *rose* and (the sun) *filled* the sky with light.
(2) He *called* at my house, but (he) *left* soon after.

(*b*) When there are *two Nominatives to the same Finite verb*, the Finite verb is not usually mentioned more than once, but it must usually be repeated in the Analysis : –

(1) *He* as well as *you* is guilty (= He is guilty as well as you are guilty).

(2) Either *this man* sinned or his *parents* (sinned).

(3) He is poor, but (he is) honest.

(4) He is diligent, and therefore (he is) prosperous.

(*c*) In such sentences as the following, however, it is obvious that the Finite verb cannot be mentioned more than once :—

Youth and experience are seldom seen together.
Time and tide wait for no man.

(*d*) In such sentences as the following, two Nominatives are combined to express a simple idea, and hence the verb must not be repeated :—

Truth-and-honesty is the best policy.
Bread-and-butter is one of the best of diets.

129. Omission of the Conjunction "and." — The "*and*" can be left out, when the aim of the writer is to give a string of sentences, all bearing upon one central fact. Only the last sentence or the last verb should have "*and*" prefixed to it in such a case.

The uses and power of steam have been thus described, one single word standing as subject to no less than twenty-six Finite verbs :—

What will not the steam-engine do ? It propels, elevates, lowers, pumps, drains, pulls, drives, blasts, digs, cuts, saws, planes, bores, blows, forges, hammers, files, polishes, rivets, cards, spins, winds, weaves, coins, prints, *and* does more things than I can think of or enumerate.

Examples of compound sentences analysed.

(1) His greatest enemy as well as his best friends declared him to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge.

(2) Either you or your son will sign his name at once on that paper.

(3) He, not I, is certainly the author of that plan.

The Clauses.	Connective.	I. Subject.		II. Predicate.			
		Nominative or Equivalent.	Enlargement of Nominative.	Finite Verb.	Completion of Finite Verb.		Extension of Finite Verb.
					Object.	Complement.	
His greatest enemy repeatedly declared him to be innocent of the fault, etc.	...	enemy	his greatest	declared	him	to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge	repeatedly.
His best friends declared him to be innocent of the fault, etc.	as well as	friends	his best	declared	him	to be innocent of the fault, etc.	repeatedly.
You will sign your name at once on that paper.	either	you	*nil*	will sign	your name	*nil*	(*a*) at once (*b*) on that paper.
Your son will sign his name at once on that paper.	or	your son	*nil*	will sign	his name	*nil*	(*a*) at once (*b*) on that paper.
He is certainly the author of that plan.	...	He	*nil*	is	*nil*	the author of that plan	certainly.
I am not the author of that plan.	*nil*	I	*nil*	(am)	*nil*	the author of that plan	not.

Exercise 28.—*Compound sentences to be analysed.*

First write out each simple sentence in full (*supplying all the omitted words*), *and then analyse according to the model* :—

1. The Lord knoweth the way of the righteous, but the way of the ungodly shall perish.

2. Little Bo-peep has lost her sheep, and can't tell where to find them.

3. She found them indeed, but it made her heart bleed ; for they had left their tails behind them.

4. The hornet is our declared enemy, and a very troublesome one it is ; however, it is well to make its acquaintance ; for by doing so we shall be forced to admire it, and even to admire the instrument used by it for wounding us.

5. The life of some insects is brief, but very active ; the female lives for two or three weeks, lays its eggs, and dies.

6. In wet weather the water rises and floats the eggs of the musquito, producing an abundant harvest ; whereas in dry seasons many eggs fail to reach the water, and so dry up and perish.

7. The barbers of Singapore have to shave heads and clean ears ; for which latter operation they have a great array of tweezers, picks, and brushes.

8. Others carry a portable cooking-apparatus and serve up a meal of fish, rice, and vegetables for two or three halfpence ; while porters and boatmen waiting to be hired are seen on every side.

9. In this way the spider lived in a precarious state for more than a week, and nature seemed to have fitted it for such a life ; otherwise it could not have subsisted upon a single fly for so long a time.

10. Howard was then led to inquire into the condition of more distant jails ; for which purpose he visited every large jail in England, and many of those in Scotland and Ireland.

11. At Venice he went with the greatest cheerfulness into the sick-house, where he remained as usual for forty days, and thus exposed his life for the sake of his fellow-creatures.

12. The diver, on descending into the water, seizes the rope with the toes of his right foot, and takes hold of the bag with those of his left ; nor does he expect to remain under water for less than two minutes.

13. The astrologers promise success to the divers ; for they expect a liberal gift of pearls as a reward for the happy sense of confidence imparted by them to those men.

14. Sir Ralph the Rover tore his hair,
And beat his breast in his despair ;
The waves rush in on every side,
And the ship sinks down beneath the tide.

15. We had a boat at our stern just before the storm, but she was staved by dashing against the ship's rudder.

16. The ranger in his couch lay warm
And heard him plead in vain ;
But oft amid December's storm
He'll hear that voice again.

CHAPTER XXVII.—ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX AND MIXED SENTENCES.

130. Complex Sentences. — In complex sentences it often happens that one Subordinate clause is dependent on another Subordinate clause. To show how this works it will be best to give an example :—

(1) The unfortunate man had not long lain in the cavern (*a*) before he heard a dreadful noise, (*b*) which seemed to be the roar of some wild beast, and frightened him very much.

(2) A merchant, who had much property to sell, caused all his goods to be conveyed on camels, as there was no railway in that country.

In sentence (1) the clause " before he heard a dreadful noise " is an adverb-clause qualifying the Finite verb " had lain," which occurs in the Principal clause : it is therefore Subordinate to the Principal clause in the *first* degree, as indicated by a *single* line drawn under it. In the same sentence the clauses " which seemed to be the roar of some wild beast, and frightened him very much," are adjective-clauses qualifying the noun " noise," which occurs in a Subordinate clause : they are therefore Subordinate to the

Principal clause in the *second* degree, as indicated by the *two* lines drawn under them.

Now take sentence (2). The clause "who had much property to sell" is an adjective-clause qualifying the noun "merchant," which occurs in the Principal clause. It is therefore Subordinate to the Principal clause in the first degree, as indicated by the single line drawn under it. In the same sentence the clause "as there was no railway in that country" is an adverb-clause qualifying the Finite verb "caused," which occurs in the Principal clause. It is therefore Subordinate to the Principal clause in the first degree, as indicated by the single line drawn under it.

The two sentences may be analysed in the following form :—

Clause.	Kind of Clause.	Connective.	I. Subject.		II. Predicate.			
			Nominative or Equivalent.	Enlargement of Nominative.	Finite Verb.	Completion of Finite Verb.		Extension of Finite Verb.
						(1) *Direct.* (2) *Indirect.* Object.	Complement.	
(1) The unfortunate man had not lain long in the cavern	Principal clause.	..	man	(1) the (2) unfortunate	had lain	..	..	(1) not long (2) in the cavern (3) before he heard, etc.
(*a*) before he heard a dreadful noise	Adv.-clause qualifying "had lain."	before	he	..	heard	a dreadful noise, which, etc.	..	..
(*b*) which seemed to be the roar of some wild beast	Adj.-clause qualifying "noise" in (*a*).	which	which	..	seemed	..	to be the roar of some wild beast	..
and frightened him very much.	Co-ordinate with clause (*b*).	and	(which)	..	frightened	him	..	very much
(2) A merchant caused all his goods to be conveyed on camels,	Principal clause.	..	merchant	(1) a (2) who had much property, etc.	caused	all his goods	to be conveyed on camels,	as there was no railway, etc.
who had much property to sell,	Adj.-clause qualifying "merchant."	who	who	..	had	much property to sell	..	..
as there was no railway in that country.	Adv.-clause qualifying "caused."	as	railway	no	was	..	..	in that country.

131. Compound Sentence defined. — We often meet with a sentence which is neither entirely Compound nor entirely Complex, but a mixture of both. The following is an example :—

What is obvious is not always known, and what is known is not always present to those who need it.

The sentence *as a whole* is Compound, the two main parts being combined co-ordinately by "and." But each part *taken separately* is a complex sentence, the first having one subordinate clause, and the second two.

A Compound sentence, then, is one that is made up of two or more Co-ordinate sentences, any of which taken by itself may be either Simple or Complex.[1] (This definition supersedes that given in § 111.)

Exercise 29.

Miscellaneous sentences to be analysed.

1. Blessed is the man that walketh not in the counsel of the wicked, nor standeth in the way of sinners, nor sitteth in the seat of the scornful.—*Psalm* i. 1.

2. Nothing can describe the confusion of thought which I felt when I sank into the water.—*Robinson Crusoe.*

3. At four o'clock p.m. we reached York, which is a fine old town dating back to the time of the Romans, though they called it by a different name that I cannot now remember.

4. If you put the end of an iron rod in the fire and hold it there, you not only heat the end, but the whole of the rod up to the end that you hold in your hand.—TYNDALL.

5. The elections proved that since the spring the distrust and hatred with which this Government was regarded had made fearful progress.—MACAULAY.

[1] In the report issued by the Terminological Committee in 1910 an attempt is made to get rid of the word "Compound" on account of its alleged ambiguity, and to put in its place the phrase "Double or Multiple." The proposed change is objectionable for several reasons: (*a*) the term "Compound," as explained above in § 131, is not at all ambiguous, and hence no change of any kind is called for; (*b*) the term "Compound" is thoroughly well established, and every one knows what it means as distinct from "Simple" and "Complex"; (*c*) the new phrase "Double or Multiple" is itself ambiguous; for it is a cross division between "Simple" and "Complex," and far from solving any difficulty opens up difficulties which have not hitherto existed.

6. These men, than whom I have never known men more unwilling, have suddenly left me, merely because I asked them to work a little overtime on account of certain orders that I unexpectedly received this morning from the Admiralty.

7. Sir Isaac Newton, after deep meditation, discovered that there is a law in nature called attraction, by virtue of which every particle of matter in the world draws towards itself every other particle of matter with a force that is proportionate to its mass and distance.—*Evenings at Home.*

8. Everywhere there is a class of men who cling with fondness to whatever is ancient.

9. When she I loved was strong and gay
And like a rose in June,
I to her cottage bent my way
Beneath the evening moon.—WORDSWORTH.

10. After his schooling was finished, his father desiring him to be a merchant like himself, gave him a ship freighted with various sorts of merchandise, so that he might go and trade about the world, and become a help to his parents who were now advanced in age.

11. I heard a thousand blended notes,
While in a grove I sat reclined
In that sweet mood when pleasant thoughts
Bring sad thoughts to the mind.—WORDSWORTH.

12. Content is a pearl of great price, and whoever procures it at the expense of ten thousand desires, makes a good purchase.

13. The rocks that first meet the eye of the traveller, as he enters the Suez Canal, are a part of the breakwater that extends out into the sea for two miles on either side of the canal.

14. This poor widow hath cast in more than they all: for they cast in of their abundance; but she of her want hath cast in all that she had, even all her living.—*New Test.*

15. Air, when it is heated, expands, or in other words the particles of which it is composed are driven farther and farther apart from one another; and so the air being less dense, less compact, or less solid, becomes proportionately lighter.

16. Our deeds shall travel with us from afar,
And what we have been makes us what we are.—G. ELIOT.

17. Foul deeds will rise,
Though all the earth o'erwhelm them, to men's eyes.
SHAKESPEARE.

18. An anonymous letter signifies that the writer lacks moral courage to affix his name, and either cannot or dare not face the contents.

19. Just so we have heard a baby, mounted on the shoulders of its father, cry out, "How much taller I am than papa!"

20. I like a rascal to be punished, when I am quite sure that his guilt has been proved before a jury who had no prejudice against him, before they began hearing his case.

21. The electricity of the air stimulates the vegetation of the trees, and scarcely a week passes before the plants are covered with the larvæ of butterflies, the forest is murmuring with the hum of insects, and the air is harmonious with the voices of birds.—TENNENT'S *Ceylon.*

22. As a goddess she had whims and fancies of her own; and one of these was that no woman was permitted to touch the verge of her mountain or pluck the berries of a certain bush that grew upon the sides.—*Volcano of the Hawaians.*

23. I shun a friend who pronounces my actions to be good when they are bad; but I like a simple and sincere friend, who holds my faults as he would a looking-glass before my face, and compels me to see them.

24. He that bullies those who are not in a position to resist him may be a snob, but cannot be a gentleman.—SMILES.

25. When the eggs have been transformed into the state of larva or caterpillar, they change their skin three times in the course of two or three weeks, each change being preceded by a period of repose and succeeded by one of activity and voracity.

26. Every one who is not blind has seen a butterfly,—that light and happy insect, which flies from flower to flower in fields and gardens, adding brightness and beauty wherever it goes.

27. A time there was, ere England's griefs began,
When every rood of ground maintained its man.
GOLDSMITH.

CHAPTER XXVIII.—CONVERSION OF SENTENCES.

132. **From Simple to Compound.**—Simple sentences can be converted into Compound sentences, by expanding words or phrases into Co-ordinate clauses.

The student must take note that in this and all other processes of conversion the change must be merely one of form or structure, and that there must be no change of meaning.

Simple.	*Besides making* a promise, he kept it.
Compound.	He *not only made* a promise, *but also* kept it.
Simple.	He must confess his fault *to escape being fined.*
Compound.	He must confess his fault, *or he will be fined.*
Simple.	Notwithstanding his sorrow, he is hopeful.
Compound.	He *is sorrowful, but yet* hopeful.
Simple.	*Owing to* bad health, he could not work.
Compound.	*He was* in bad health, *and therefore* he could not work.

Exercise 30.

Convert from Simple to Compound :—

1. Seeing a bear coming, he fled.
2. Besides myself, every one else declares him to be guilty.
3. Before retiring, he must first serve twenty-five years.
4. After making a great effort, he at last gained his end.
5. In addition to advising them, he helped them liberally
6. The agreement having been signed, all were satisfied.
7. Drawing his sword, he rushed at the enemy.
8. The judge believes with me in his innocence.
9. The sun having risen, the fog dispersed.
10. He will be dismissed in the event of his doing such a thing again.
11. You must take rest, on pain of losing your health.
12. He fled away, to escape being killed.
13. He escaped punishment by confessing his fault.
14. Approach a step nearer at peril of your life.
15. You must walk two hours a day to preserve your health.
16. For all his riches he is not contented.
17. Notwithstanding all his efforts, he failed to gain his end.
18. In spite of the opposition of all men, he never swerved.
19. In spite of our search, we could not find the book.
20. He had every qualification for success, except quickness of understanding and decision of character.
21. He hated every one but himself.
22. He persevered, in spite of all men being against him.

23. He stuck to his point against every one.

24. Notwithstanding his recent failure, he is still hopeful.

25. He was honoured in virtue of his wealth.

26. He worked night and day, being desirous to excel.

27. He was taken ill through grief at the loss of his son.

28. By means of his great wealth, he was able to build himself a fine house.

29. He spoke the truth from fear of the disgrace of falsehood.

30. The letter, having been addressed to the wrong house, never reached me.

31. To our great disappointment, we failed to carry out our purpose.

32. To add to his difficulties, he lost his health.

33. The fog being very dense, we were forced to halt.

34. St. Paul continued preaching at Rome, no man forbidding him.

133. **From Compound to Simple.**—Compound sentences can be converted to Simple sentences by the methods shown below :—

(*a*) By substituting a Participle for a Finite verb :—

Compound. The sun rose, and the fog dispersed.
Simple. The sun having risen, the fog dispersed.

(*b*) By substituting a Preposition, etc., for a clause :—

Compound. He not only made a promise, but kept it.
Simple. Besides making a promise, he kept it.

(*c*) By substituting a Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive for a clause :—

Compound. He must confess his fault or he will be fined.
Simple. He must confess his fault to escape being fined.

Exercise 31.

Convert from Compound to Simple :—

1. An ass accidentally found a lion's skin, and put it on to frighten the other beasts.

2. He was fatigued with walking, and so he sat down to take a little rest.

3. Turn to the left and you will find the house of your friend.

4. Not only the tank, but even a part of the river was frozen over with ice.

5. The judge, as well as the jury, believed the prisoner to be guilty.

6. You must work hard the whole term, and then you will get promotion.

7. He was the son of poor parents, and therefore he had to encounter many trials and difficulties at the outset of his career.

8. He was a poor man, and yet he was of an independent spirit at all times.

9. I advised him to make the best use of his time, but he paid no heed.

10. He was much frightened, but not much hurt.

11. Every effort was made to check the spread of cholera; yet a large number of persons died.

12. He was well fitted for that post by character and attainments; only he was rather too young and inexperienced.

13. He did his best to be punctual, but still he was occasionally behind time.

14. He is well versed in books, but wanting in common sense.

15. You must work hard, or you will not get promotion.

16. Give us some clear proofs of your assertion, otherwise no one will believe you.

17. A certain fowler fixed his net on the ground, and scattered a great many grains of rice about it.

18. The pigeons flew down to pick up the rice grains; for they were all hungry.

19. The old man frequently begged his sons to live together in peace, but he was disregarded.

134. **From Simple to Complex.**—Simple sentences can be converted to complex ones, by expanding words or phrases into subordinate clauses.

(*a*) *Noun-Clause.*

Simple. I am certain *of giving* you satisfaction.
Complex. I am certain *that I shall give* you satisfaction.

(*b*) *Adjective-Clause.*

Simple. He paid off *his father's debts.*
Complex. He paid off the debts *which his father had contracted.*

(c) *Adverb-Clause.*

Simple. { *On reaching the age of manhood* you will have to work for your living.

Complex. { *As soon as you have reached the age of manhood,* you will have to work for your living.

Exercise 32.

Convert from Simple Sentence to Complex :—

1. I was glad to hear of your having succeeded so well.
2. He is generally believed to have died of poison.
3. No one can tell the time of his coming.
4. He shouted to his neighbours to come to his help.
5. We can place no confidence in any of his words.
6. The usefulness of even the simplest weapons to men in the savage state will easily be understood.
7. We must hope for better times.
8. Tell me the time and place of your birth.
9. The verdict of the judge was in favour of the accused.
10. Our present house suits us exactly.
11. This rule, the source of all our troubles, is disliked by every one.
12. The diamond-field is not far from here.
13. He and his friend entered into a partnership binding themselves to incur equal risks.
14. Their explanation cannot be true.
15. The king took refuge in the fortress, being determined to make a last attempt in that place to save his kingdom.
16. He was a man of irreproachable conduct.
17. The snow-line in India is about 20,000 feet high.
18. The troubles besetting him on all sides did not daunt him.
19. In the absence of any other helper, we must accept his aid.
20. The two chief points having been gained, success is now certain.
21. The problem was too difficult to be solved.
22. He worked very well, to the astonishment of every one.
23. Every precaution was taken against the failure of the plan.
24. They proceeded very cautiously for fear of being caught.
25. He started by night to escape being seen by any one.
26. He would be very thankful to be relieved of all this trouble.

27. With or without his leave, I shall leave the room.
28. Notwithstanding the heat of the sun we must go out.
29. In spite of all his riches, he is never contented.

135. **From Complex to Simple.** – Complex sentences can be converted to Simple sentences by the following methods.

I. *Noun-clause.*

(*a*) By substituting a noun for the Noun-clause introduced by the Conjunction " that " :—

Complex. It is to be regretted that he died so young.
Simple. His death so early in life is to be regretted.

(*b*) By substituting a noun for the Noun-clause introduced by a Relative adverb :—

Complex. Tell me when and where you were born.
Simple. Tell me the time and place of your birth.

(*c*) By substituting a noun for the Noun-clause introduced by a Relative pronoun :—

Complex. We need not disbelieve what he said.
Simple. We need not disbelieve his word.

Exercise 33.

1. What he spoke on that occasion was unworthy a man of his age and experience.
2. That the rose is the sweetest and most beautiful of flowers is admitted by almost every one.
3. They are now ready to confess that the charge against my friend was groundless.
4. Even his friends admitted that what his enemies complained of was just and reasonable.
5. What we have learnt already is a step towards learning what we do not at present know.
6. They admit that Milton was a great poet, but deny that he was a good man.
7. What seemed most strange in the battle of Plassey was that the Nawab's immense army should have been defeated by so small a force, and that the victory on the English side should have been so decisive.

8. I should like to be informed what character in English history you most admire.

9. I will now be bold enough to confess what my heart desires and how I shall obtain it.

10. From what you have read in this book, you have become acquainted with the state in which the Saxons were living, when the Normans arrived under William the Conqueror.

11. You will easily understand from what you have been told how much this book has displeased me by its bad teaching.

II. *Adjective-clause.*

(*a*) By using some adjective or participle :—

Complex. Such pupils as work hard are likely to win a prize.
Simple. Hard-working pupils are likely to win a prize.

(*b*) By using a noun or pronoun in the Possessive case :—

Complex. They soon forgot the labours they had endured.
Simple. They soon forgot *their* past labours.

(*c*) By using a noun in apposition :—

Complex. This rule, from which all our troubles have come, is much disliked.
Simple. This rule, the source of all our troubles, is much disliked.

(*d*) By using a Preposition with its object : —

Complex. The benefits that he derived from his early training were soon lost.
Simple. The benefits of his early training were soon lost.

(*e*) By using a Gerundial Infinitive :—

Complex. I have no money that I can spare.
Simple. I have no money to spare.

(*f*) By using a Compound noun :—

Complex. That is the place where my father was buried.
Simple. That was my father's burial-place.

Exercise 34.

1. The explanation he gave was not to the point.
2. The year in which the school was opened was 1884.
3. Let us take a walk into the grove that adjoins my father's house.

4. The army that Hannibal led against Rome was the most formidable that the Romans had up to that time encountered.

5. He was not fully aware of the extent of the dangers by which he was surrounded.

6. Mary Queen of Scots was the most unfortunate of all the sovereigns of that part of the century in which she lived.

7. The whole plan was upset by the course which affairs took after the 24th of May.

8. We decided on building a cottage in the vale that is watered by a streamlet which flows from a perennial fountain.

9. The people of Israel mourned in the land to which they had been taken captive.

10. The temple of Solomon was built on the site which David had taken from the Jebusites who were its former masters.

11. There was no rope whereby the boat might be tied to the river's bank.

12. The intelligence that the lower animals display in the search for food and in the preservation of their young is something very different from what is called a blind instinct.

13. You are not the kind of man who would tell an untruth for the sake of an advantage that would be merely temporary.

14. This is a rule that must not be violated by any one, and admits of no variation.

III. *Adverb-clause.*

(*a*) By using a preposition with gerund :—

Complex. The boy was pleased that he had won a prize.
Simple. The boy was pleased at having won a prize.

(*b*) By using a participle :—

Complex. As the main point has been gained, success is certain.
Simple. The main point having been gained, success is certain.

(*c*) By using a Gerundial (or Qualifying) Infinitive :—

Complex. They were surprised, when they heard him confess.
Simple. They were surprised to hear him confess

Exercise 35.

1. He drew the plan of the building more skilfully than any one else could have done it.

2. They were much alarmed, when they saw that their position was hopeless.

3. The king or queen cannot impose taxes, unless the Parliament consents or approves.

4. If a man puts on the appearance of honesty, he can sometimes pass for honest.

5. Though he is a man of years and experience, he is still apt to be imprudent and thoughtless when some sudden emergency occurs.

6. The speaker declared he had changed his mind on that subject, so that the audience were much surprised and distressed.

7. As the sun has set, we had better start for home.

8. These men suspect that I am a swindler.

9. When the fire was put out and the inmates of the house rescued, the firemen removed the pumps, so that they might take a little rest.

10. As the judge has already decided the case, further defence is useless.

11. His mother will be much consoled, when she sees that her son has escaped from so many dangers.

12. I should be indeed sorry, if I were the cause of your ruin or stood in the way of your advancement.

13. He spoke so rapidly that we could not clearly understand him.

14. There is no branch of knowledge so difficult that it cannot be conquered by perseverance.

15. The rope in your hand is so long, that it will touch the bottom of the well, if a stone is tied to the end of it.

16. He was not so courageous, that he was willing to ride that spirited horse.

17. The moment I saw how industriously and patiently he worked, I decided that I would secretly give him some pecuniary help that very day.

18. He made such an excellent speech in defence of his friend, that every one admired and respected him.

136. **From Compound to Complex.** — In a Compound sentence the second of two co-ordinate clauses is the one that completes the sense, and is therefore the more important of the two.

Hence it follows that in transforming a Compound

sentence to a Complex one, the *second* must be made the *Principal* or *Containing* clause, and the *first* the *Dependent* or *Contained* clause.

Compound. Speak the truth, *and* you need have no fear.
Complex. *If* you speak the truth, you need have no fear.

Compound. Leave this room, *or* I will compel you to do so.
Complex. *Unless* you leave this room, I will compel you to do so.

Compound. He was a poor man, *but* he was always honest.
Complex. *Although* he was poor, he was always honest.

Compound. He was very tired, and *therefore* he fell sound asleep.
Complex. He fell sound asleep, *because* he was very tired.

Exercise 36.

Convert from Compound to Complex :—

1. Hand over the prisoner to me, and I will examine him.
2. Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves.
3. Only hold your tongue, and you can hold anything else.
4. He stands up to speak, and every one is at once silent.
5. Is any man sick ? let the elders pray for him.—*New Test.*
6. I go to this place and that, and the same thought pursues me everywhere.
7. He confessed his fault, or he would have been punished.
8. Sign your name, or I shall not agree to this.
9. You must be careful of your money, or you will soon lose it.
10. Conquer thy desires, or they will conquer thee.
11. He is sixty years old, and yet he still has good sight.
12. Murder has no tongue, but it will some day speak.
13. All men were against him ; nevertheless he persevered.
14. He might be ever so rich ; yet he was greedy for more.
15. Go wherever you like, only you must not stay here.
16. In the discharge of duty he was a strict, but just man.
17. I thoroughly dislike that man, and therefore I cannot admire him.
18. It is now late ; so we had better go to bed.
19. My son's health was bad last year, and hence he was not promoted at the end of the term.

20. Food is raised by agriculture, which is therefore the foundation of all wealth.

21. My son has never done such a thing before: he should therefore be pardoned.

137. From Complex to Compound.—In a Complex sentence the Principal or Containing clause is, as its name implies, of more importance than the Subordinate or Contained clause.

Hence it follows that in transforming a Complex sentence to Compound, the Principal clause must be placed last, and the Subordinate (which now becomes a Co-ordinate) clause must be placed first.

Complex.	I am certain that he will not recover.
Compound.	He will not recover, and of this I am certain.
Complex.	I have found the sheep that I had lost.
Compound.	I had lost a sheep, but I have found it again.
Complex.	He is more a fool than a knave.
Compound.	He is something of a knave, but still more a fool.

Exercise 37.

Convert from Complex to Compound :—

1. You may keep this book, since you have earned it as a prize.

2. He will pay off all his debts in time, if only his creditors will have patience.

3. The enemy fled as soon as our guns came in sight.

4. Every man howled with pain, as he took his turn of the lash.

5. When you have worked out this sum, you may go out to play.

6. Could I but see that wonderful object, I would believe in its existence.

7. As soon as the trumpet sounded, the battle commenced.

8. He left for home yesterday as soon as he received that letter.

9. We selected this boy as the best in the class, after we had examined all of them.

10. He could do this, if he tried.

11. If our king should be slain on the battlefield, we still have his son to lead us against our enemies.

12. Though you may not be able to conquer, I exhort you to fight bravely to the last.

13. Brave as he is, he has few men around him, and may be defeated.

14. Grievous words stir up anger, though a soft answer turneth away wrath.—*Old Testament.*

15. Though the waves dash ever so high, the ship will not be lost.

16. If you do not hold your peace, you will be fined.

17. Unless he speaks the truth in your behalf, you will not be acquitted.

18. If we had helped him in the time of need, he would now be ready to give help to us.

19. If I had known the extent of his demand, I would not have promised to pay him.

20. Unless he works hard and in earnest, he will be certainly plucked.

21. If he buys that house, he will run into debt.

22. I must begin my book with a preface as other writers do.

23. Now that every one is convinced of your honesty, you are free to go.

24. Those bags should be carefully guarded, as every one is trying to steal them.

25. He worked hard, as he had an object to work for.

26. He was taken very ill, because he had lost his only son.

27. He spoke the truth, because he feared the disgrace of falsehood.

CHAPTER XXIX.—SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES.

137*a*. Short Sentences to be combined or synthesised.—Sometimes we have to bind together a succession of little sentences, all bearing on the same subject, into one or more longer sentences, in which the facts stated will be presented in a more readable form. This kind of practice is called Synthesis (combination). It is the opposite to Analysis, which consists in breaking up a single sentence into its component clauses and each clause into its component parts—the Subject, the Predicate, etc.

Synthesis is useful as an aid to composition, Analysis as an aid to parsing.

The three short sentences given below may be combined in such a way as to produce one longer sentence, and the sentence thus produced may be either Complex, Compound, or Simple, and this without any difference of meaning :—

The followers of the Viceroy had often praised him to his face.
They hated him for his cruelties and vices.
They deserted him in the hour of need.

(*a*) Out of these three sentences a Complex sentence might be formed as follows :—

The followers of the Viceroy hated him so much for his cruelties and vices, that, though they had often praised him to his face, they deserted him in the hour of need.

(*b*) A Compound sentence can be easily formed out of the same materials :—

The followers of the Viceroy had often praised him to his face, but out of hatred for his cruelties and vices they deserted him in the hour of need.

(*c*) A Simple sentence can be formed quite as easily : —

The Viceroy, hated for his cruelty and vices, but often praised to his face, was deserted by his followers in the hour of need.

If the number of little sentences is too large to make only one sentence, the student will have to bind them together into a paragraph which shall consist of several sentences fewer, but longer, than the original ones ; and the sentences so formed may be Complex, Compound, or Simple according to the convenience of the writer or the demands of the examiner.

In combining a string of short sentences into a single sentence, the writer must take care that the sentence so produced involves no violation of Unity. It must in other words express one main idea, and not more than one.

Exercise 38.

Combination of short sentences into one or more longer sentences.

1. Combine the following sentences into a single sentence without using *and* or *but*.

A lion was proud of his strength.
He despised the weakness of the mouse.
He was caught in a net.
He could not escape from the net.
He was set free by the exertions of the mouse.
Camb. Junior, July 1909.

2. Combine the following sentences into one complex sentence :—

Once an oarsman was rowing by himself.
He did not look behind him.
He met another boat.
He crashed into it.
He was upset.—*Camb. Junior*, December 1911.

3. Express in a single complex sentence the sense of the following sentences :—

A fox saw a crow sitting on a tree with a piece of cheese in his mouth.
The fox praised the crow's singing.
The crow was pleased by the flattery.
The crow began to sing.
The crow dropped the cheese.
Camb. Junior, December 1908

4. Express in one or more complex sentences the sense of the following sentences :—

A dog was running away with a piece of meat.
He passed some deep still water.
He saw there the reflected image of the meat.
He dropped the meat into the deep water.
He snatched in vain at the shadow.
Camb. Junior, July 1908.

5. Express in a single sentence the sense of the following sentences :—

The train ran down the incline.
The train attained great speed.
The train turned a sharp curve at the bottom.
The train oscillated under the influence of the brakes.
The train threw all the passengers into a panic.

Camb. Junior, December 1907.

6. Express in a single complex sentence the sense of the following sentences :—

A famished traveller was toiling over the desert.
He found a bag.
He was highly delighted.
He opened the bag.
He found nothing but pearls.

Camb. Junior, July 1907.

7. Express in a single complex sentence the sense of the following sentences. (If you cannot include all the sentences, include as many as you can.)

A half-starved mouse managed to creep into a basket of corn.
The mouse rejoiced in his good fortune.
The mouse fed greedily on the corn.
The mouse tried to get out of the basket.
The mouse found that his body was now too big to pass through the hole.

Camb. Junior, December 1906.

8. Combine the following statements into one complex sentence :—

Sensibility of principle is gone.
It felt a stain like a wound.
It inspired courage.
It mitigated ferocity.
It ennobled whatever it touched.
Vice lost half its evil under it.

Central Welsh Board, 1914.

9. Combine the following statements into one complex sentence :—

The Italians enjoyed the present blessings of ease and tranquillity.
They were rich.
They were polite.
They were lovers of pleasure.
They did not suffer their pleasing dreams to be interrupted by the memory of their old freedom.

Central Welsh Board, 1913.

10. Combine the following sentences into one complex sentence :—

I have seen a bird rising from his bed of grass and soaring upward, singing as he rises. The poor bird was driven back with the loud sighings of an eastern wind. His movements were made irregular and inconstant. He descended more at every breath of the tempest than he could recover by the motion of his wings.—*Central Welsh Board*, 1912.

Exercise 39.

Combine into any kind of sentence, Simple, Complex, or Compound, that you find most convenient. It does not matter which kind of sentence you select, so long as the sentence produced by the combination is smooth and idiomatic.

1. The supply of pasture often runs short. The nomads of Tartary then shift their abode. They search for new pastures elsewhere.

2. Richard I., the king of England, was seized with remorse. He had rebelled against his father. The father at that time was an old man. He was much attached to all his sons.

3. I am very sorry to see him so changed. He has lost all hope. He has given up work. He worked hard last year. He has excellent abilities.

4. He is attacked unjustly. He is blamed for serious faults. He has not been guilty of such faults. He feels for this reason very much hurt.

5. The crown-prince cannot increase his forces. He must first raise the money. He cannot pay his men without this. He cannot without this induce them to fight cheerfully for his cause.

6. You may still perhaps succeed in your object. You must persevere steadily. Success is impossible without this.

7. They adopted very decisive measures. They wished to put an end to all further difficulties.

8. He was armed with a coat of mail. Hence the blows of his assailants had no effect. The blows fell thickly upon him.

9. The authors of this outbreak are disappearing. They are melting away. A mist in the same way melts before the sun. Clouds in the same way are dispersed by wind. Leaves in the same way are scattered by a breeze.

10. The people were not ill-prepared for war. Every man had been trained to arms once in his life. That was the law of the country. That law was always faithfully observed.

11. The lion was let out of its cage for the amusement of the spectators. It did not run at Androcles to devour him. It came up quietly. It fawned upon him. A dog fawns in the same way upon its master. It licked his hand. He had been kind to it in the forest. It remembered this.

12. I walked with him to the sea-shore. The wind at that time was sighing mournfully around us. It seemed to sympathise in our sorrow at his leaving us so soon.

13. They had now finished their meal. They at once resumed their journey. They walked another ten miles. They then stopped and rested.

14. The heretics could not be convinced of their error. Hence attempts were made to compel them to recant. The means used were fire and sword. All such attempts failed. The heretics remained obdurate as before.

15. There is no longer any fear of invasion. The army may be reduced. The ships may return into port. The sailors may go back to their homes. They may take a holiday.

16. The wind was strong. It drove the ship ashore. The ship struck into the sand. It remained fixed there for several days.

17. The town of Upsala is looked upon as an historic centre. Of this there is no doubt. Here the sanctuaries of paganism once flourished. Many monuments of them still survive within and around the modern town.

18. For an hour he continued telling them stories of absorbing interest. They all had the element of mystery. All of them dealt with crimes. The crimes thus dealt with were atrocious. They were equally inexplicable.

19. The next two months were most pleasantly spent in this lovely island. During that time we made many friends amongst the planters. We also enjoyed their hospitality. They are noted for being hospitable.

20. Henceforth Axel's progress in his studies was surprising. In comparison with other boys he could devote little time to them. Considering this fact his progress was indeed surprising.

21. Mr. Merriman left the cottage. He crossed the river. He returned almost immediately. He was accompanied by five Dyaks. He had met them in the Chinese quarter. They had arrived there with a boatload of commodities collected from the jungle.

22. In former times there was a peculiar class of persons. They were called knights-errant. They were clad in coats of mail. They rode about singly. One object was to fight with each other at tournaments. The other object was to redress the wrongs of strangers. Such strangers sought their assistance.

CHAPTER XXX.—SEQUENCE OF TENSES: DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH.

138. Sequence of Tenses.—There are two main rules:—

Rule I. A Past tense in the Principal sentence must be followed by a Past tense in the Dependent sentence:—

He *would* come, if you *wished* it.
He *succeeded*, because he *worked* hard.
He *worked* hard, that he *might* succeed.

Exceptions to Rule I.—(1) If the Dependent clause expresses some *universal* or *habitual* fact, its verb remains in the Present tense:—

Principal.	*Dependent.*
They *did* not know,	that the earth *moves* round the sun.
I *was* glad to hear,	that he *is* a man to be relied on.

(2) If the Dependent clause is introduced by "than" or by "as much as," its verb can be in any tense that suits the sense:—

Principal.	*Dependent.*
He *liked* you more	than he *likes* or *will like* me.
He *liked* you as much	as he *likes* or *will like* me.

(3) If the Dependent clause is an Adjective clause, its verb may be in any tense that suits the sense. In fact Rule I. has no connection whatever with Adjective clauses, but applies only to Noun clauses and to Adverb clauses.

Principal.	*Dependent.*
He *did* not see the event,	that he *has* described so well in the pamphlet which I *was* reading yesterday and which I *shall* read again to-morrow.

Rule II. A Present or Future tense in the Principal sentence can be followed by any tense whatever in the Dependent sentence :—

I *know* that he *was* angry.
I *shall* soon get the letter that he *posted* yesterday.

Exercise 40.

(*a*) *Correct or justify the following tenses* (*italicised*) : –

1. I was informed that he *had been reading* a book. 2. He did not say when he *will come*. 3. No one knew whether he *intended* to come or not. 4. He concealed from me what his plans *are*. 5. I fear that you *were* displeased with me yesterday. 6. I shall soon find out why you *were* so displeased. 7. His face was so changed that I *do* not know him again. 8. The teacher gave me a prize that I *may work* hard next year. 9. The teacher has given me a prize that I *may work* hard next year. 10. You will be pleased to hear that I *have won* a prize. 11. He asked me why I *wish* to go away so soon. 12. No one understood how he *can* do so much work. 13. He had come that he *might* help me to finish the task. 14. You did not tell me when you *intend* to return home. 15. I was sorry to find that I *have displeased* you. 16. I hope that you *will pardon* me soon. 17. I did not know why you *give* me this order. 18. We shall soon know what progress he *has made*. 19. We heard to-day what progress he *has made*. 20. You never told us that honesty *was* the best policy.

(b) Supply the tense and voice of the verbs enclosed in brackets.

1. I hope that you (return) soon. 2. If you (foresee) the consequences of idleness, you (be) more industrious than you were last term. 3. He tried how many miles he (can) walk in an hour. 4. He (go) away for a change, as soon as the holidays begin. 5. He not (go) away till the work of the term was over. 6. The oxen (low) so loud, that the thieves (can) not prevent us from finding out the place where they had hidden them. 7. He is so disappointed with the result that he (decide) to give up all further trial. 8. I went to his house that I (see) him and tell him all that (happen). 9. It was very unlikely that he (reach) before six o'clock p.m. 10. There was a rumour that he (perish) in the fire, which (break) out in the village yesterday. 11. I am sorry that you (keep) waiting so long last night. 12. I signed my name on the understanding that you (keep) your engagement with me; but I am sorry to see that you not (do) so. 13. Your son has turned out more industrious than I (expect) he (will). 14. To-morrow you (do) what I (do) to-day, and to-day you (do) what I (do) yesterday. 15. We never (see) such fine batting before, and perhaps we never (see) the like again. 16. Though he (gain) one prize already, he is willing to begin working for another. 17. The tradesman's voice trembled so much that my suspicions (arouse). 18. I gave him no answer lest I (make) him more angry than ever. 19. The more money he made, the more he (want). 20. Though he is a poor man, he never (resort) to anything dishonest. 21. He came upon me as suddenly as if he (drop) from the sky. 22. I hope you (make) up your mind that such a thing never (happen) again. 23. It made no difference to him how we (carry) on our business; for he (be) not one of our partners, and we (will) not take him into partnership, if he (ask) us.

139. Direct and Indirect Speech.—A speech is said to be in *Direct* Narration, when the very words used by the speaker are repeated without any change; in *Indirect*, when the words are given with some change of construction.

In Indirect Narration the verbs are bound by the same rules as those given in § 138 for the Sequence of Tenses.

Thus by Rule I., when the reporting or principal verb is in the Past tense, the Present tense in the reported speech

must be changed into its corresponding Past form. Thus we change—

Shall	into	*should*	*See*	into	*saw*
Will	,,	*would*	*Is seeing*	,,	*was seeing*
May	,,	*might*	*Has seen*	,,	*had seen*
Can	,,	*could*	*Has been seeing*	,,	*had been seeing*

Observe also that when the Present tense is changed into the Past by Rule I., an adjective or adverb expressing *nearness* is similarly changed into one expressing *distance*. Thus we change :—

Now	into	*then*	*To-day*	into	*that day*
This or *these*	,,	*that* or *those*	*To-morrow*	,,	*next day*
Hither	,,	*thither*	*Yesterday*	,,	*the previous day*
Here	,,	*there*	*Last night*	,,	*the previous night*
Hence	,,	*thence*	*Ago*	,,	*before*
Thus	,,	*so*			

Direct.—" What *is this* strange outcry ? " said Socrates ; " I *sent* the women away mainly in order that they might not offend in *this* way ; for I *have heard* that a man should die in peace. *Be* quiet then and *have* patience."

Indirect.—Socrates *inquired* of them what *that* strange outcry *was*. He *reminded* them that he *had sent* the women away mainly in order that they might not offend in *that* way ; for he *had heard* that a man should die in peace. He *begged* them therefore *to be* quiet and *have* patience.

Exercise 41.

(*a*) *Convert from Direct to Indirect :—*

1. He said, " I have been very ill, but am now better."

2. Pilate replied to the Jews, " What I have written, I have written."

3. He said to me, " You are guilty, and I am innocent."

4. They said, " The boy is hiding in the place where we left him."

5. They said, " The boy will soon be found ; and we will bring him."

6. " What do you mean ? " asked the man ; " how can a rope be used for binding flour ? " " A rope may be used for anything," said the other, " when I do not wish to lend it."

7. A rich man once said to his poorer brother, "Why do you not enter the service of the king, so that you may be relieved of the baseness of labour?"

8. Finding no remedy, he said to himself, "It is better to die than to live in such misery as I am compelled to suffer from a master who treats me and always has treated me so unkindly."

9. And they said one to another, "We are verily guilty concerning our brother, in that we saw the anguish of his soul, when he besought us, and we would not hear: therefore is this distress come upon us."—*Old Testament.*

10. The violent man said, "What violence have I done? What anger have I been guilty of?" Then the others laughed and said to him, "Why should we speak? You have given us ocular proof of your violent temper."

11. The robber said to Alexander, "I am thy captive: I must hear what thou art pleased to say, and endure what thou art pleased to inflict. But my soul is unconquered; and if I reply at all to thy reproaches, I will reply to thee like a free man."

12. "You are old, Father William," the young man cried,
"The locks that are left you are grey;
You are hale, Father William, a hale old man;
Now tell me the reason, I pray."

13. "I am sorry indeed," replied the king, "that my vessel is already chosen; and I cannot therefore sail with the son of the man who served my father."—DICKENS.

14. He cried to them in agony, "Row back at any risk! I cannot bear to leave her behind to be drowned."—DICKENS.

15. He made a promise to the king's surgeon, saying:—"Bleed the king to death with this lancet, and I will give you a thousand pieces of gold; and when I ascend the throne, you shall be my chief minister."

(*b*) *Convert from Indirect to Direct:—*

1. My brother told me that he had been reading all day.
2. My father told me that I was wrong and would be fined.
3. I replied that if my fault was proved I would pay the fine.
4. I admitted that I had acted foolishly in what I had done.
5. Damon, before his execution, requested but one favour from Dionysius, which was that he might be permitted to visit his wife and children, who were at that time a considerable

distance from him, and he promised faithfully to return on the day appointed.

6. This Dionysius refused to grant, unless some person could be found who would consent to suffer death in his stead, if he did not perform his promise and return by the appointed time.

7. In a short speech Pythias told the surrounding multitude that his dear friend, Damon, would soon arrive ; but he hoped not before his own death had saved a life so dear as Damon's was to his family, his friends, and his country.

8. He sent his compliments to Francis, Clavering, and Monson, and charged them to protect Raja Guru Das, who was about to become the head of the Brahmins of Bengal.

9. The governor of the town then called out with a loud voice, and ordered Androcles to explain to them how a savage and hungry lion could thus in a moment have forgotten its innate disposition, and be converted all of a sudden into a harmless animal.

10. Androcles then explained to them that that very lion, which was standing before them, had been his friend and partner in the woods, and had for that reason spared his life, as they then saw.

11. Socrates then suggested to Glaucon that the entire abolition of the guards which he (Glaucon) recommended could not remedy the evils which he desired to remove, and he inquired of Glaucon whether he knew by personal examination that the guards did their work as badly as he imagined.

12. When he reached home, his father asked him where his ship was and what had become of his merchandise. The son in reply told him what had happened,—how he had given up his vessel with its cargo, and had taken in exchange the slaves and set them free, and how he had consented to take this girl back with him and make her his wife.

13. When they asked Thales what thing in the world was more universal than anything else, he replied that Hope was the most universal thing, because Hope remained with those who had nothing else left.

14. When Solon and Periander were sitting together over their cups, Periander, finding that Solon was more silent than usual, asked him whether he was silent for want of words or because he was a fool. Solon told him in reply that no fool could be silent over his cups.

PART V.—ANALYSIS AND DERIVATION OF WORDS: SOUNDS AND SPELLINGS.

CHAPTER XXXI.—COMPOUND WORDS.

140. Simple or Primary Words.—A word that is not combined with any other word or syllable is called a Simple or Primary word; such as *buy, walk, come* (verbs); *bench, fire, name* (nouns); *hot, cold, stiff* (adjectives); *well, ill, much* (adverbs); *in, by, with* (prepositions); *he, she, it* (pronouns); *and, but, for* (conjunctions).

141. Compounds, Derivatives.—Most of our words, however, are not Simple, but are either Compounds or Derivatives.

When one *word* is added to another, the combination is called a **Compound;** as *man-kind, oil-lamp, low-lands, mid-ship-man.*

When a *particle* (*i.e.* a syllable which does not make a complete word, or is not *now* used as one) is added to a word, the combination is called a **Derivative;** as *man-ly, good-ness.*

If one Simple word is formed from another by means of some internal change, as *graze* from *grass, bleed* from *blood,* this is called a **Primary** Derivative; but a Derivative formed by adding a particle to the beginning or the end of a word, or both, as "man-*ly*," "*un*-man-*ly*," "*un*-man-*li-ness*," is called **Secondary.**

142. Compounds.—Such words fall into six main classes :—

(1) Noun *Compounds.*

(1) *Adjective + Noun* : blue-bell, mid-day, sweet-heart, nobleman.

(2) *Participle + Noun* : finishing-stroke, loving-kindness, humming-bird.

Note.—Sometimes the final *-ing* of the present participle is not used, as in screech-owl (for screeching-owl), mock-bird (for mocking-bird), glow-worm (for glowing-worm).

(3) *Noun + Noun* : noon-tide, plough-man, sports-man, rail-road, pen-wiper, way-farer, snake-charmer, snake-charming.

Note.—In *sportsman* the noun *sports* is Possessive *sport's*. Cf. salesman, oarsman, tradesman, kinsman, statesman, bees-wax, Wednes-day (for Wodenes-day, the day of Woden).

In some compounds of this class the apostrophe has been retained, as in the following : stone's-throw, land's-end, king's-bench, cat's-paw, heart's-ease.

(4) *Gerund + Noun* : cooking-stove, looking-glass, drinking-water.

(5) *Pronoun + Noun* : he-goat, she-goat, my-self, our-selves.

(6) *Verb + Noun* : tell-tale, dare-devil, pick-pocket, break-fast.

(7) *Verb + Adverb* : break-down, stand-still, draw-back, go-between.

(8) *Adverb + Verb* : out-come, off-spring, in-come, up-start.

(9) *Adverb + Noun* : by-path, after-life, up-land, in-land, over-coat.

(2) Adjective *Compounds.*

(1) *Noun + Adjective* : sky-blue, blood-red, foot-sore, air-tight.

(2) *Noun + Participle* : tongue-tied, crest-fallen, hen-pecked.

(3) *Adjective + Noun* : blind-fold, bare-foot-ed, public-spirit-ed.

Note.—In such a word as "bare-foot-ed" we have the compound "bare-foot" with the particle *ed* added to the end of it. Such words are very common.

(4) *Adjective + Adjective or Participle* : red-hot, high-born, blue-green, ready-made, hard-boiled.

(5) *Preposition + Noun* : over-land, under-hand, over-hand.

(6) *Adverb + Adjective or Participle* : so-called, far-fetched, half-blind, ill-bred.

(3) Verb *Compounds.*

(1) *Noun + Verb* : back-bite, way-lay, hen-peck, brow-beat.

(2) *Adjective + Verb* : white-wash, rough-hew, safe-guard, rough-shoe (chiefly seen in the participial form "rough-shod").

(3) *Adverb + Verb* : back-slide, over-awe, up-set, with-hold.

(4) *Verb + Adverb* : doff (do off), don (do on), turn out, put on.

(4) Adverb *Compounds.*

(1) *Adjective + Noun* : mean-time, other-wise, mid-way, yester-day.

(2) *Adverb + Preposition* : here-in, forth-with, there-for(e), here-upon.

(3) *Noun + Noun* : length-ways, side-ways. (The final *s* is a sign of the Possessive case, see § 47.)

(5) Double *Compounds.*

(1) The notion that realism is somehow immoral faintly suggests a French-novel-reading Bishop.—*Times Weekly*, p. 329, 28 Sept. 1906. (A bishop who is a reader of French novels.)

(2) A seventeen year-old girl is alleged to have attacked a woman with a chopper, etc.—*Daily Express*, p. 5, 4th Oct. 1906. (A girl seventeen years old.)

(6) Phrase *Compounds.*

Forget-me-not (noun) ; hand-and-glove (adj. said of friends that fit each other as closely as hand and glove) ; man-of-war ; would-be (adj. used for one who intended to be or do something, but was stopped) ; barrister-at-law ; note-of-hand ; ticket-of-leave ; Jack-o'-lantern ; hole-and-corner (adj. clandestine) ; son-in-law ; four-in-hand.

Note.—Such phrase-compounds as the above are all well established ; the student is not at liberty to coin fresh ones whenever he likes.

142*a*. Spelling of Compounds.—In words of two or more syllables the accent is usually thrown back on the first syllable, and in many cases this has the effect of altering the spelling :—

Bon-fire from *bone-fire*. *Hus-band* from *house-band* (lit. house-dweller). *Hus-sif* or *hus-sy* from *house-wife*. *Nos-tril*

from *nose-thrill*. *Star-board* from *steer-board*. *Tad-pole* from *toad-poll*. *Fort-night* from *four-teen-night*. *Suf-folk* from *South-folk*. *Fur-long* from *furrow-long*. *Sus-sex* from *South-Sex* (*i.e.* South *Sax*-on).

In some words, however, the change of sound produced in the first syllable by the accent is not accompanied by any change in the spelling :-

Black-guard. Cup-board. Break-fast. Two-pence, three-pence. Row-lock (sounded as *rullock*).

142*b*. **The Forming of Compounds in Modern English.**—It has been asserted that the forming of compounds in modern English is practically extinct. "The power of making new words by the combination of other words seems to have perished through the influence of the Norman French. At any rate our language possesses it no longer" (West).

This statement is altogether erroneous. Most of the compounds quoted above in this chapter were formed long after the introduction of Norman French. Our language has lost none of its old power of forming new compounds, whenever the need of a new compound exists. In Tennyson alone we have *proxy-wedded*, *crimson-circled*, *slow-arching*, *heavy-shotted*, *hammock-shroud*, *hundred-throated*, *breaker-beaten*, *flesh-fallen*, *gloomy-gladed*, *lady-laden*, *mock-meek*, *rain-rotten*, *tongue-torn*, *work-wan*, etc.

CHAPTER XXXII.—DERIVATIVES.

143. **Root, Stem, Prefixes, Suffixes.**—A Primary word reduced to its simplest etymological form is called a **Root.**

A **Stem** is the change of form (if any) assumed by the root, before a suffix is added to it. Thus in the word "fals-i-ty" the root is *fals* (Lat. *fals*-us); the stem is *falsi*; and the suffix is *ty*. The stem and the root, however, often coincide; as in *man* (root or stem) + *ly* (suffix).

Particles added to the *end* of a stem are called **Suffixes.** Those added to the *beginning* are called **Prefixes.** The name "Affix" stands for either, though it is more commonly used for Suffix.

As a general rule Prefixes alter the meanings of words, while Suffixes show to what Part of Speech they belong. Thus there is a very radical difference of meaning between "*pre*-scribe," to order, and "*pro*-scribe," to prohibit; but there is no change in the Part of Speech; both are verbs. A change of Suffix, however, usually produces a change in the Part of Speech. Thus "dark-*ness*" is a noun, "dark-*ly*" is an adverb, "dark-*en*" is a verb.

144. **Sources of Prefixes and Suffixes.** — The three sources from which our Prefixes and Suffixes have come are :—

I. Teutonic (Anglo-Saxon, with a few Norse and Dutch). These are sometimes, but unsuitably, called "English."

II. Romanic (Latin or French, with a few Spanish and Italian).

III. Greek (borrowed either directly from Greek or through French).

145. **Hybrids.**—The name "hybrid" (which means "of mixed origin") is applied to any Compound or Derivative word, whose parts have come from different sources, *i.e.* are neither purely Teutonic, nor purely Romanic, nor purely Greek. Hybrids are very common in our language.

Thus in *en-dear* the prefix is Romanic, the stem is Teutonic. In *starv-ation* the stem is Teutonic, the suffix is Romanic. In *be-siege* the stem is Romanic, the prefix is Teutonic. In *false-hood* the stem is Romanic, the suffix is Teutonic. In *bi-cycle* the stem is Greek, the prefix is Romanic. In *art-ist* the stem is Romanic, the suffix is Greek.

Section 1.—Suffixes: Teutonic, Romanic, Greek.

146. **I. Noun-forming.**—We may classify the principal suffixes under the following headings :—

(*a*) Denoting agent, doer, or one appointed to act :—

Teutonic :—

-er, -ar, -or (modern forms of A.S. *-ere*) : bak-*er*, do-*er*, li-*ar*, tail-*or*, London-*er*, law-y-*er*, saw-y-*er*.

-ther, -der (A.S. *-ther*, *-der*) : fa-*ther*, bro-*ther*, daugh-*ter*, spi(n)-*der*.

Romanic :—

-or, -eur (Latin *-or*, *-ator*, French *-eur*) : aggress-*or*, doct-*or*, amat-*eur*, emper-*or*, cens-*or*, specul-*ator*.

-ary, -aire, -ar, -eer, -ier (Latin *-arius*, *-aris*) : secret-*ary*, million-*aire*, schol-*ar*, volunt-*eer*, cash-*ier*, brigad-*ier*.

-an, -ain, -en, -ian, -cn (Latin *-anus*) : public-*an*, capt-*ain*, citiz-*en*, guard-*ian*, sext-*on*.

-ant, -ent (Latin *-antem*, *-entem*) : merch-*ant*, tru-*ant*, ten-*ant*, combat-*ant* ; stud-*ent*, rod-*ent*, cli-*ent*.

-ate (Latin *-atus*, *-atem*) : candid-*ate*, magistr-*ate*, prim-*ate*.

-ee, -ey, -y (French *-é*, from Latin *-atus*) : deput-*y*, jur-*y*, attorn-*ey*, grand-*ee*, employ-*é*, absent-*ee*, refug-*ee*.

-ive, -iff (Latin *-ivus*, French *-if*) : fugit-*ive*, mot-*ive* ; plaint-*iff*, bail-*iff*.

Greek :—

-ist, -ast (Greek *-ist-es*, *-ast-es*) : soph-*ist*, art-*ist*, psalm-*ist*, botan-*ist*, nihil-*ist* ; enthusi-*ast*.

-ot (Greek *-ot-es*) : patri-*ot*, zeal-*ot*, idi-*ot*, Iscari-*ot*.

-ite, -it (Greek *-it-es*) : Israel-*ite*, erem-*ite*, herm-*it*, Jesu-*it*.

(*b*) Marking the Feminine gender :—

Teutonic :—

-ster (A.S. *-es-tre*), **-en** (A.S. *-en*) : spin-*ster*, vix-*en* (Fem. of "fox").

Romanic :—

-ess (Latin *-ix*, French *-esse*) : testatr-*ix*, shepherd-*ess*.

Note.—"Sultan-*a*," "donn-*a*." Here the *a* is Italian.

Greek :—

-ine (Greek *-in-e*, French *-ine*) : hero-*ine*, czar-*ina*.

(*c*) Diminutives (denoting smallness, endearment, contempt) :—

Teutonic :—

-el, -le, -l (A.S. *-el*) : hov-*el*, bund-*le*, freck-*le*, gir-*l*.

-erel, -rel (A.S. *-er + el*, Double suffix): cock-*erel*, mong-*rel*, dogg-*erel* (?).

-en (A.S. *-en*): maid-*en*, chick-*en*.

-ing, -ling (A.S. *-ing*, Double suffix, *-el + -ing*); farth-*ing*, tith-*ing*; hire-*ling*, duck-*ling*. (*Note.*—The suffix *-ing* is not always in a diminutive sense, as Vik-*ing*, "a man of the creek," a creeker.)

-kin (Dutch *-ken*): fir-*kin*, nap-*kin*.

-ock, -k (A.S. *-uc*, *-c*): bull-*ock*, hill-*ock*, stir-*k* (little steer).

-y, -ey, -ie (A.S. *-ig*): bab-*y*, Tomm-*y*, Charl-*ey*, bird-*ie*, lass-*ie*.

-ster (A.S. *es-tre*): trick-*ster*, pun-*ster*, young-*ster*, rhyme-*ster*.

Romanic:—

-aster (Lat. *-aster*, cf. A.S. *-estre*): ole-*aster*, pil-*aster*, poet-*aster*.

-ule, -le (Lat. *-ulus*): pill-*ule*, sched-*ule*; circ-*le* (hence circ-*ul*-ar).

-cule, -cle (Lat. *-cu-lus*, Fr. *-cle*): animal-*cule*, pinna-*cle*.

-el, -le, -l, -elle (Lat. *-ellus*): dams-*el*, cast-*le*, vea-*l*, bagat-*elle*, vermi-c-*elli*, umbr-*ella*, violon-c-*ello* (Ital.).

-et, -ot, -ette (Fr. *-et*, fem. *-ette*; Ital. *-etto*): lock-*et*, lanc-*et*; ball-*ot*; brun-*ette*, cigar-*ette*; stil-*etto*, fals-*etto*.

-let (Double suffix, *-el + et*): brook-*let*, rivu-*let*, ham-*let*, cut-*let*.

-ito (Span. *-ito*): negr-*ito*, mosqu-*ito*.

Greek:—

-isk (Gr. *-iscos*): aster-*isk*, obel-*isk*.

(*d*) Augmentatives (denoting greatness, or excess to a fault):—

Romanic:—

-ard, -art (Low Lat. *-ardus*): drunk-*ard*, wiz-*ard*, bragg-*art*.

-oon, -on, -one (Fr. *-on*, Ital. *-one*): ball-*oon*, flag-*on*, tromb-*one*.

(*e*) Abstract suffixes (denoting act, state, quality, etc.):—

Teutonic:—

-dom (A.S. *dóm*): free-*dom*, martyr-*dom*, earl-*dom*, Christen-*dom*.

-hood, -head (A.S. *hád*): man-*hood*, priest-*hood*, maiden-*head*.

-lock, -ledge (A.S. *lác*): wed-*lock*, know-*ledge*.

-red (A.S. *réd*): hat-*red*, kind-*red*.

-ric (A.S. *rice*): bishop-*ric*.
-ness (A.S. *-nis, -nes*): dark-*ness*, aloof-*ness*, holi-*ness*.
-ship (A.S. *scipe*): friend-*ship*, wor(th)-*ship*, owner-*ship*.
-t, -th (A.S. *-ith*): leng-*th*, tru-*th*, heigh-*t*, ligh-*t*, sigh-*t*.
-ter, -der (A.S. *-ther, -der*): slaugh-*ter*, laugh-*ter*, mur-*der*.

Romanic :—

-age (Fr. *-age*): cour-*age*, hom-*age*, umbr-*age*, bond-*age*.
-al (Fr. *-aille*): refus-*al*, tri-*al*, surviv-*al*, bestow-*al*.
-ance, -ence, -ancy, -ency (Lat. *-antia, -entia*): dist-*ance*, prud-*ence*, guid-*ance*, const-*ancy*, urg-*ency*.
-cy, -acy (Lat. *-tia*): cur-*acy*, prel-*acy*, secre(t)-*cy*, idiot-*cy*.
-ice, -ise, -ess (Lat. *-itia*, Fr. *-esse*): serv-*ice*, exerc-*ise*, prow-*ess*.
-ion (Lat. *-ionem*): relig-*ion*, fash-*ion*, suspic-*ion*, relat-*ion*.
-ment (Lat. *-mentum*): enjoy-*ment*, fer-*ment*, attach-*ment*.
-mony (Lat. *-monia*, or *-monium*): parsi-*mony*, matri-*mony*.
-or, -our, -eur (Lat. *-or*, Fr. *-eur*): err-*or*, fav-*our*, grand-*eur*.
-ry, -ery (Fr. *-rie, -erie*): slave-*ry*, trick-*ery*, brave-*ry*.
-tude (Lat. *-tudo*): forti-*tude*, longi-*tude*, magni-*tude*.
-ty (Lat. *-tas*, Fr. *-té*): cruel-*ty*, certain-*ty*, frail-*ty*, falsi-ty.
-ure, -ury (Lat. *-ura*): seiz-*ure*, cult-*ure*, capt-*ure*, us-*ury*.
-y (Lat. *-ia, -ium*): infam-*y*, stud-*y*, perjur-*y*.

Greek :—

-ism, -asm (Gr. *-ismos, -asmos*): optim-*ism*, enthusi-*asm*.
-y (Gr. *-ia*): monarch-*y*, energ-*y*, sympath-*y*.

(*f*) Collective (denoting a collection or the place of one) :—

Romanic :—

-ade (Fr. *-ade*): arc-*ade*, colonn-*ade*, balustr-*ade*.
-age (Fr. *-age*): foli-*age*, plum-*age*, vill-*age*, cott-*age*.
-ry, -ery (Fr. *-rie, -erie*): tenant-*ry*, rook-*ery*, gent-*ry*.
-ory (Lat. *-orium*): dormit-*ory*, fact-*ory*, invent-*ory*.
-ary (Lat. *-arium*): gran-*ary*, libr-*ary*, gloss-*ary*.

(*g*) Miscellaneous suffixes, not included in the above :—

Teutonic :—

-m, -om (A.S. *-m, -ma*): bloo-*m* (from *blow*), doo-*m* (from *do*), bes-*om*.
-nd, -and (A.S. Pres. Part. ending): frie-*nd*, wi-*nd*, husba-*nd*.
-ow, -w (A.S. *-u, -we*): mead-*ow*, shad-*ow*.

Romanic :—

-ace (Lat. *-atio, -atium* ; Fr. *-ace*) : popul-*ace*, terr-*ace*, pal-*ace*.
-ine, -in (Lat. *-inus*) : libert-*ine*, cous-*in* (Lat. consobr-*inus*).
-me, -m (Lat. *-men*) : cri-*me*, char-*m*, real-*m* (Lat. regali-*men*)
-o (Lat. *-us, -um* ; Span. *-o*) : studi-*o*, grott-*o*, incognit-*o*.
-cre, -chre (Lat. *-crum*) : sepul-*chre*, lu-*cre*.

Greek :—

-on (Gr. *-on*) : criteri-*on*, skelet-*on*, col-*on*, phenomen-*on*.
-ic, -ics (Gr. *-ikos, -ika*) : log-*ic*, mus-*ic*, phys-*ics*, eth-*ics*.

147. II. **Adjective-forming** :—

(*a*) Possessing a quality of any kind :—

Teutonic :—

-ed (A.S. *-d*) : wretch-*ed*, gift-*ed*, fabl-*ed*, money-*ed*.
-en (A.S. *-en*) : wheat-*en*, gold-*en*, heath-*en*, op-*en*.
-ly (A.S. *-lic*) : god-*ly*, woman-*ly*, man-*ly*.
-some (A.S. *-sum*) : toil-*some*, hand-*some*, whole-*some*, bux-*om*.
-y, -ey (A.S. *-ig*) : might-*y*, wood-*y*, clay-*ey*, drear-*y*, an-*y*.

Romanic :—

-al (Lat. *-alis*) : vit-*al*, parti-*al*, mort-*al*, comic-*al*.
-an, -ane, -ain (Lat. *-anus*) : pag-*an*, hum-*an*, hum-*ane*, cert-*ain*.
-ant, -ent (Lat. *-antem, -entem*) : dist-*ant*, abs-*ent*, pres-*ent*.
-ar, -ary, -arious (Lat. *-aris, -arius*) : lun-*ar*, contr-*ary*, vic-*arious*, greg-*arious*.
-esque (Lat. *-iscus*, Fr. *-esque*) : pictur-*esque*, grot-*esque*, Arab-*esque*.
-ile, -il, -eel, -le, -el (Lat. *-ilis*) : frag-*ile*, fra-*il*, gent-*eel*, gent-*le*, hum(b)-*le*, cru-*el*.
-ic, -ique (Lat. *-icus, -iquus*) : rust-*ic*, com-*ic*, un-*ique*, obl-*ique*.
-ine (Lat. *-inus*) : div-*ine*, clandest-*ine*, infant-*ine*.
-lent (Lat. *-lentem*) : pesti-*lent*, corpu-*lent*, vio-*lent*.

(*b*) Possessing a quality in a high degree :—

Teutonic :—

-ful (A.S. *-ful*, Eng. *-full*) : plenti-*ful*, beauti-*ful*, master-*ful*.

Romanic :—

-ous, -ose (Lat. *-osus*) : numer-*ous*, fam-*ous*, verb-*ose*.

(*c*) Possessing a quality in a slight degree; hence sometimes used in a depreciative sense :—

Teutonic :—

-ish (A.S. *-isc*) : pal-*ish*, redd-*ish*, woman-*ish* (fit for a woman, but not fit for a man), snapp-*ish*, upp-*ish*, slav-*ish*, baby-*ish*.

Note.—The prefix *sub-* (Latin) sometimes means "slightly"; as, *sub*-acid (slightly acid), *sub*-tropical (not quite tropical).

(*d*) Conveying an Active sense :—

Romanic :—

-ive (Lat. *-ivus*) : recept-*ive*, act-*ive* : (capt-*ive*, which has a Passive sense, is exceptional).

-ory, -orious (Lat. *-orius*) : illus-*ory*, cens-*orious*.

-fic (Lat. *-ficus*) : terri-*fic*, honori-*fic*, beati-*fic*.

(*e*) Conveying a Passive sense :—

Romanic :—

-able, -ible (Lat. *-bilis*) : laugh-*able*, eat-*able*, ed-*ible*.

(*f*) Describing nation, sect, creed, etc. :—

Teutonic :—

-ish, -ch (A.S. *-isc*) : Engl-*ish*, Ir-*ish*, Span-*ish*, Fren-*ch*.

Romanic :—

-an (Lat. *-anus*) : Rom-*an*, Austri-*an*, Belgi-*an*, Christi-*an*.

-ese (Lat. *-ensis*) : Chin-*ese*, Siam-*ese*, Portugu-*ese*.

Greek :—

-ite (Gr. *-it-es*) : Israel-*ite*, Irving-*ite*, Carmel-*ite*.

(*g*) Miscellaneous suffixes, not included in the above :—

Teutonic :—

-teen, -ty (A.S. *-tín*, *tig*, ten) : thir-*teen* (3 + 10), thir-*ty* (3 × 10).

-ern (A.S. *irn*-an, to turn) : north-*ern*, north-*er*(n)-ly.

-ther (A.S. *ther*, Comp. degree) : o-*ther*, fur-*ther*, whe-*ther*, ne-*ther*.

Romanic :—

-ior (Lat. comp. degree) : exter-*ior*, pr-*ior*, super-*ior*.

-monious (Lat. *-monius*) : cere-*monious*, sancti-*monious*.

-ple, -ble (Lat. *-plex*, Fr. *-ple*, fold) : tri-*ple*, tre-*ble*.

Greek :—

-astic, -istic (Gr. *-astikos*, *-istikos*) : dr-*astic*, art-*istic*.

148. III. Verb-forming :—

(*a*) Causative ; hence forming Transitive verbs :—

Teutonic :—

-en (A.S. *-en* or *-n*) : dark-*en*, sweet-*en*, length-*en*, height-*en*.

Romanic :—

-fy (Lat. *facio*) : magni-*fy*, terri-*fy*, stupe-*fy*.

Greek :—

-ise (through French *-iser*) : galvan-*ise*, brutal-*ise*, fertil-*ise*.

Note.—Some Prefixes are also used for the same purpose :—*Teutonic* **be-**, as *be*-friend, *be*-calm, *be*-numb ; *Romanic* **im-**, **en-**, as *im*-peril, *en*-dear, *en*-large.

(*b*) Frequentative, denoting frequency or continuance :—

Teutonic :—

-el, -le, -l : cack-*le*, jost-*le*, sniv-*el* (sniff), draw-*l* (draw).

-er, -r : batt-*er* (beat), sputt-*er* (spout), glimm-*er* (gleam).

-k : har-*k* (hear), hear-*k*-en, lur-*k*, tal-*k* (tell).

(*c*) Other verb-forming suffixes :—

Romanic :—

-ate (Lat. *-atum*) : captiv-*ate*, gradu-*ate*, filtr-*ate*.

-ish (Lat. *-isc*, Fr. *-iss*) : pun-*ish* (pun-*ch*), per-*ish*, flour-*ish*.

-esce (Lat. *-esco*, inceptive) : coal-*esce*, acqui-*esce*.

149. IV. Adverb-forming :—

Teutonic :—

-ly (A.S. *lic-e*, in a like way) : on-*ly*, bad-*ly*, dark-*ly*, open-*ly*.

-ling, -long (A.S. *linga*) : head-*long*, dark-*ling*, side-*long*.

-meal (A.S. *mǽl*, a time) : piece-*meal*, inch-*meal* (Shakespeare).

-ward, -wards (A.S. *weard*, direction) : back-*ward*, back-*wards*.

-wise (A.S. *wis-e*, manner) : like-*wise*, other-*wise*.

-way, -ways (A.S. *weg*, way) : straight-*way*, al-*ways*.

-s, -ce (sign of Possessive) : need-*s*, twi-*ce*, back-ward-*s*, sometime-*s*.

-n : whe-*n*, the-*n*, the-*n*-ce. (The *n* in *often* is an intruder.)

-re : whe-*re*, the-*re*.

-om (old Dative ending ; cf. who-*m*, the-*m*, hi-*m*) : whil-*om*, seld-*om*.

-ther (direction) : whi-*ther*, hi-*ther*, hi-*ther*-to.

Note.—We have no Romanic or Greek suffixes for forming Adverbs.

SECTION 2.—PREFIXES: TEUTONIC, ROMANIC, GREEK.

150. Teutonic Prefixes.—These have been distinguished into (*a*) Separable, and (*b*) Inseparable :—

(*a*) *Separable*; *i.e.* capable of being used as separate words; such as *after*-life, *by*-path, *fore*-cast, *forth*-coming, *off*-shoot, *on*-set, *out*-let, *through*-ticket, *up*-start, *wel*-fare. Such words might be called Compounds (§ 141). These do not require further explanation. The few mentioned below are somewhat peculiar.

Out-.—This gives certain verbs the sense of surpassing; as *out*-live (to live beyond), *out*-vote (to defeat by votes), *out*-run, *out*-shine.

Over-.—This denotes excess; as *over*-eat (eat too much), *over*-sleep (sleep too long), *over*-worked (worked too much).

Under-.—This denotes deficiency, too little; as *under*-fed, *under*-paid, *under*-valued, *under*-cooked.

With-.—This denotes "back," "against"; as *with*-stand, *with*-hold, *with*-draw. ("Drawing-room" means "with-drawing-room." The *with* has been elided.)

(*b*) *Inseparable*; *i.e.* not used as separate words :—

A- (*on, in*): *a*-bed, *a*-shore, *a*-jar, *a*-stir, *a*-sleep, etc.

A- (*of, from*): *a*-down (off a down or hill), *a*-fresh, *a*-kin, *a*-new.

A- (Intensive): *a*-rise, *a*-waken, *a*(f)-fright, *a*(c)-[illegible]ed.

Al- (*all*): *al*-one, *l*-one, *al*-most, *al*-ready, *al*-tog[illegible].

Be- (*by*): (1) Transitive force; as *be*-calm. (2) Intensive force; as *be*-smear. (3) Forming adverbs or prepositions; as *be*-sides, *be*-fore. (4) Privative force in *be*-head.

For- (not the prep. "for"): (1) Intensive; as *for*-bear, *for*-lorn. (2) Privative; as *for*-bid, *for*-get, *for*-swear, *fore*-go (a bad spelling for *for*-go. The prefix *fore* is quite distinct from *for*).

Gain- (A.S. *gegn*, against): *gain*-say, *gain*-strive (out of use).

N- (Indef. article "a," the *n* being wrongly detached): *n*-ewt (for *an ewt*), *n*-ugget (for *an ingot*), *n*-ickname (for *an eke-name*).

N- (Negative prefix): *n*-or, *n*-either, *n*-ay.

Mis- (*miss*): *mis*-take, *mis*-hap, *mis*-deed, *mis*-trust.

Twi- (A.S. *twi*, double): *twi*-light, *twi*-n, *twi*-ce, *twi*-st.

Un- (A.S. *un-*): (1) Negative: *un*-wise = not wise. (2) Reversal: twist, *un*-twist. (In "*un*-loose" the *un-* is merely Intensive.)

151. Romanic Prefixes.—The following are of frequent occurrence :—

A-, ab-, abs- (*from*) : *a*-vert, *ab*-use, *ab*-normal, *abs*-tain.

Ad- (*to*) : *ad*-vice, *ab*-breviate, *ac*-cent, *af*-fable, *ag*-gressor, *al*-lude, *an*-nex, *ap*-pear, *ar*-rears, *as*-sert, *at*-tain.

Ambi- (*on both sides*) : *amb*-iguous, *amb*-ition, *ambi*-dextrous.

Ante-, anti-, ant- (*before*) : *ante*-cedent, *anti*-cipate, *ant*-ique.

Bene- (*well*) : *bene*-fit, *bene*-volent, *ben*-ison.

Bis-, bi-, bin- (*twice*) : *bis*-cuit, *bi*-ped, *bi*-cycle, *bin*-ocular.

Circum-, circu- (*around*) : *circum*-stance, *circu*-it, *circum*-ference.

Cis- (*on this side*) : *cis*-Alpine, on this side of the Alps.

Con- (*with*), **coun-** (Fr.) : *con*-tend, *col*-lege, *com*-pete, *cor*-rect, *coun*-sel, *con*-temporary.

Contra- (*against*), **counter** (Fr.) : *contra*-dict, *contra*-st, *counter*-act, *counter*-part, *counter*-mand.

De- (*down, from, astray*) : *de*-grade, *de*-part, *de*-viate.

,, (Reversal) : merit, *de*-merit ; *en*-camp, *de*-camp.

,, (Intensive) : *de*-liver, *de*-clare, *de*-file, *de*-fraud.

Dis-, di- (*asunder*) : *dis*-tract, *dis*-miss, *dis*-member, *di*-vulge.

,, (Intensive) : *dis*-sever, *dis*-annul, *di*-minish.

,, (Reversal) : en-chant, *dis*-enchant ; illusion, *dis*-illusion.

,, (Negative) : ease, *dis*-ease ; honour, *dis*-honour ; *dif*-ficult.

Ex-, e-, extra- (*out*) : *ex*-ample, *e*-lapse, *extra*-vagant.

,, (*loss of office*) : *ex*-king, *ex*-empress.

In-, en-, em- (*in*) : *in*-ject, *im*-pute, *ir*-ritate, *en*-close, *em*-ploy.

In- (*not*) : *in*-firm, *il*-literate, *im*-pious, *ir*-regular, *i*-gnorance.

Inter-, enter- (*among*) : *inter*-est, *intel*-lect, *enter*-prise.

Intro-, intra- (*within*) : *intro*-duce, *intra*-tropical, *intr*-insic.

Male-, mal- (*badly*) : *male*-volent, *male*-factor, *mal*-ady.

Mis- (Lat. *minus*, badly) : *mis*-chance, *mis*-chief, *mis*-nomer.

Non-, ne-, neg- (*not*) : *non*-sense, *ne*-uter, *neg*-lect.

Ob- (*against*) : *ob*-ject, *oc*-cur, *of*-fer, *op*-press, *os*-tensible, *o*-mit.

Pen- (Latin *pæne, almost*) : *pen*-insula, *pen*-ultimate.

Per- (*through*) : *per*-form, *per*-haps, *pel*-lucid.

,, (*wrong direction*) : *per*-vert, *per*-jury, *per*-fidy, *per*-ish.

Post- (*after*) : *post*-script, *post*-pone, *post*-ern.

Pre- (Latin *præ, in front, before*): *pre*-occupy, *pre*-tend, *pre*-dict, *pre*-vent.

Preter- (Latin *prater, beyond*): *preter*-natural, *preter*-ite.

Pro-, por-, pur- (Latin *pro, for, before*): *pro*-fess, *pour*-tray, *por*-trait, *pur*-pose.

Re-, red- (*back*): *re*-fer, *re*-new, *red*-eem, *red*-undant.

Retro- (*backwards*): *retro*-cession, *retro*-grade, *retro*-spect.

Se-, sed- (*apart*): *se*-cret, *se*-cure, *se*-parate, *sed*-ition.

Semi-, demi- (*half*): *semi*-circle, *demi*-god.

Sub- (*under*): *sub*-ject, *suc*-cour, *suf*-fice, *sug*-gest, *sum*-mon, *sup*-pose, *sur*-render, *sus*-pend, *sub*-marine ("under the sea").

,, (*slightly*): *sub*-acid, *sub*-tropical.

,, (*of lower rank*): *sub*-judge, *sub*-committee, *sub*-division.

Subter- (*under, secretly*): *subter*-fuge.

Super-, sur- (*above*): *super*-fluous, *sur*-face, *sur*-vive.

Trans-, tra- (*across*): *trans*-mit, *trans*-gress, *tra*-duce, *tra*-ffic.

Tri-, tre- (*three, thrice*): *tri*-angle, *tri*-nity, *tri*-vial, *tre*-ble.

Ultra- (*beyond, excess*): *ultra*-marine, *ultra*-radical.

Vice-, vis- (*instead of*): *vice*-roy, *vis*-count.

152. Greek Prefixes :—

Amphi- (*on both sides*): *amphi*-bious, *amphi*-theatre.

An-, a- (*not*): *an*-archy, *an*-ecdote, *a*-pathy, *a*-theism, *a*-gnostic.

Ana- (*again, back*): *ana*-logy, *ana*-lyse, *ana*-tomy.

Anti-, ant- (*against*): *anti*-podes, *anti*-pathy, *ant*-agonist.

Apo-, aph- (*from*): *apo*-logy, *apo*-state, *apo*-stle, *aph*-orism.

Archi-, arch- (*chief*): *archi*-tect, *arch*-bishop, *arch*-angel.

Auto- (*self*): *auto*-car, *auto*-graph, *auth*-entic.

Cata-, cath- (*down*): *cata*-ract, *cath*-edral, *cat*-echism.

Dia- (*through*): *dia*-logue, *dia*-meter, *dia*-gnosis.

Dis-, di- (*in two*): *dis*-syllable, *di*-phthong, *di*-lemma, *di*-stich, *di*-graph.

Dys- (*ill, badly*): *dys*-entery, *dys*-pepsia.

Ek-, ex- (*out*): *ec*-stasy, *ex*-odus.

En- (*in*): *en*-thusiasm, *em*-phasis, *el*-lipsis.

Eu-, ev- (*well*): *eu*-phony, *eu*-logy, *ev*-angelist.

Epi-, eph- (*on*): *epi*-taph, *ep*-och, *eph*-emeral, *ep*-isode.

Hemi- (*half*): *hemi*-sphere, *hemi*-stich.

Hyper- (*above, beyond*): *hyper*-critical, *hyper*-bole.

Hypo-, hyph- (*under*): *hypo*-crite, *hypo*-thesis, *hyph*-en.
Meta-, meth-, met- (*after*): *meta*-phor, *meth*-od, *met*-eor.
Mono-, mon- (*single*): *mono*-poly, *mon*-arch, *mon*-k.
Pan-, panto- (*all*): *pan*-orama, *panto*-mime, *pan*-oply.
Para-, par- (*beside*): *para*-ble, *para*-graph, *par*-allel, *para*-lysis.
Peri- (*around*): *peri*-od, *peri*-phrasis, *peri*-meter.
Pro- (*before*): *pro*-gramme, *pro*-phet, *pro*-blem, *pro*-em.
Syn- (*with*): *syn*-od, *syl*-lable, *sym*-bol, *sym*-pathy, *sy*-stem.
Tri- (*thrice*): *tri*-pod, *tri*-syllable, *tri*-chord, *tri*-cycle.

153. **General results**, regarding the uses of Prefixes:—

(*a*) Prefixes denoting the **undoing** of something done:—

Teutonic:—

un-: *un*-bolt, *un*-tie, *un*-lock, *un*-fold.

Romanic:—

dis-: *dis*-mount, *dis*-arm, *dis*-appear, *dis*-close, *dis*-embark.
de-: *de*-odorise, *de*-plete, *de*-camp, *de*-throne.

(*b*) Prefixes denoting a **Negative**, with one Suffix:—

Teutonic:—

un-: *un*-happy, *un*-safe, *un*-ready, *un*-certain, *un*-selfish.
-less: hap-*less*, law-*less*, hope-*less*, spot-*less*.
n-: *n*-one, *n*-ever, *n*-or, *n*-either.

Romanic:—

ne-, neg-, non-: *ne*-uter, *neg*-lect, *non*-sense.
dis-, di-: *dis*-contented, *dif*-ficult, *dif*-fident, *dis*-agree.
in-: *in*-human, *ir*-rational, *im*-moral, *ig*-noble, *il*-legible.
ab-: *ab*-normal.

Greek:—

a-, an-: *a*-pathy, *an*-archy.

(*c*) Prefixes indicating something **good**:—

Teutonic:—

well-: *wel*-fare, *wel*-come, *well*-bred.

Romanic:—

bene-: *bene*-volent, *bene*-fit, *ben*-ignant, *ben*-ison.

Greek:—

eu-, ev-: *eu*-phony, *ev*-angelist.

(*d*) Prefixes indicating something **bad** :—

Teutonic :—

mis- (from *miss*) : *mis*-deed, *mis*-take, *mis*-hap.

Romanic :—

mis- (from *minus*) : *mis*-carry, *mis*-use, *mis*-fortune.
male-, mal- : *male*-factor, *mal*-ignant, *mal*-treat.

Greek :—

dys- : *dys*-entery, *dys*-pepsia.

Exercise 42.—*On Word-building.*

(*a*) 1. Supply the feminine forms of *sultan, hero, testator, shepherd, spinner, fox.* 2. Break up *mistrustfully, unwholesomeness* into syllables, and show how each syllable contributes to the meaning of the words. 3. What are the suffixes in the following words : *farthing, foremost, kingdom, fatten, English, thirsty* ? 4. Reverse the meaning of each of the following words by adding a prefix :—*happy, possible, rational, contented, valid, noble, sense.* 5. Give four examples of diminutive forms in English nouns. 6. Form adjectives from *disaster, two, wheat,* and adverbs from *gay, holy, other, south, week.* 7. How are verbs formed (*a*) from nouns ; (*b*) from adjectives ; (*c*) from other verbs ? Give two examples of each, and show the exact force of the change of the word. 8. By the use of a suffix, change each of the following nouns into an adjective, and give the force of each suffix :—*sister, fame, quarrel, slave, silver.* 9. What is meant by saying that the word *bicycle* is a hybrid ? 10. Write words (one in each case) containing the following prefixes and suffixes :—*ante-, anti-, auto-, vice-, -ess, -ness, -ry, -kin.* (*Oxford and Cambridge, Junior and Senior.*)

(*b*) 1. How are Compound verbs formed ? Write down ten Compound verbs with different prefixes, giving the meaning of these. 2. Give the diminutive forms of *stream, hill, duck, lass* ; and the meaning of the prefix in each of the following words :—*mischance, importunate, retrospect, subterfuge, constant.* 3. Why is *co*-temporary an incorrect form ? What different forms do *cum, in, ad, inter, per* assume in composition ? 4. Write down suffixes employed to denote (1) the agent, (2) diminution, (3) gender. 5. Give with examples three affixes (suffixes) of Latin

origin, by which Abstract nouns in English are formed. 6. Give the exact force of the following prefixes and affixes (suffixes):—man*hood*, spin*ster*, tire*some*, spark*le*; *mis*give, *for*get, *be*troth, *in*nocent. 7. What is the force of the prefixes in the words *impossible*, *except*? From what languages are they respectively taken? Write down three other examples of the use of each of these prefixes. 8. Explain the meaning of the following prefixes, and write words formed by means of them:—*un-*, *ante-*, *bi-*, *circum-*, *inter-*. 9. Give (i.) three prefixes of Latin origin, and (ii.) three noun suffixes; and by examples show what effect they have upon words in which they are introduced. (*Preceptors', Second and Third Classes.*)

(*c*) 1. Give the different ways of forming adverbs in English. 2. Explain the force of the syllables in italics in the following words:—spin*ster*, head*long*, twen*ty*, *im*proper, hill*ock*, eld*est*, king*dom*, *be*sprinkle. 3. In the following words what is the force of the parts printed in italics?—*a*round, numer*ous*, *a*loud, govern*esses*, *re*cite, Engl*ish*, Italian. 4. Mention *two* ways in which *abstract* nouns can be formed from *common* nouns, and give *two* examples of each. 5. What is meant by *diminutives* and *augmentatives*? Illustrate by examples the suffixes used in the formation of such words. 6. What are *compound* adjectives? Give *three* examples. 7. Give the meanings of the following Latin Prefixes, and illustrate each by *two* English words:—*ab-*, *bis-*, *con-*, *non-*, *pro-*, *se-*. 8. Give the meanings of the following *prefixes*, and *two* instances of the use of each:—*in-*, *per-*, *dis-*, *re-*. (*Preceptors', Second and Third Classes.*)

(*d*) 1. Say what you know about the Feminine endings in *vixen*, *spinster*, *duchess*, *baxter*, *margravine*, *infanta*, and *testatrix*. 2. Mention six English Inseparable prefixes; and give two examples of words formed with each of them. 3. What is the force of the prefix in:—*un*dismayed, *mis*lay, *be*hind, *for*give, *with*stand, *pre*fix, *extra*vagant, *post*pone, *super*scription, *an*archy, *epi*taph, *peri*meter? 4. Give the meaning and function of the following prefixes (with *two* examples in each case), and state whether they are English or Latin:—*be-*, *con-*, *for-*, *gain-*, *in-*, *pro-*, *re-*, *with-*. 5. Give the derivation and meaning of each of the following suffixes, with two examples of each:—*-ard* or *-art*, *-fy*, *-kin*, *-ock*, *-ous*, *-some*, *-ster*, *-tude*. 6. Give the meaning and function of the following suffixes; and state whether they are

added to nouns, or verbs, or adjectives: *-ing, -ling, -m, -red, -ther, -s, -ward.* 7. Give examples of the following suffixes, and state their derivation and their meaning:—*-ster, -kin, -ly, -tude, -let, -ous, -fy, -ise.* 8. Explain with examples the force of the following prefixes and suffixes: *-be-, for-, with-, cata-, intro-, -der, -nd, -ship, -eer, -le, -ment.* 9. Give the origin and meaning of the prefix in each of the following words:—*ad*vent, *contra*dict, *for*lorn, *hyper*critical, *inter*pose, *mis*take, *re*open, *trans*marine, *un*kind, *with*stand. 10. Give the meaning and derivation of the suffixes (distinctly specifying these) of the following words: *-wisdom, bounty, slavish, clayey, worship, blackness, longitude, sepulchre, strengthen, gamble.* 11. Explain the force of the terminations in any five of the following:—*oxen, risen, maiden, holden, wooden, open, often.* 12. With what different suffixes, and derived from what sources, do we form Abstract nouns? Give one or two examples of each. 13. Point out the force of the prefix in each of the following, explaining the words themselves:—*hypercritical, antechamber, cisalpine, synchronous, percolate, cataract.* (*Preceptors', First Class.*)

CHAPTER XXXIII.—SOUNDS, SYMBOLS, AND SPELLINGS.

Section 1.—Letters, Accent, Syllables.

154. A **letter** (Latin *litera*, Fr. *lettre*) is a mark or symbol that stands for a certain sound. Without letters men can talk as fast as they like, but they cannot either read or write. A word, until it is written, is merely a sound, perceptible to the ear, but not to the eye. It is really the sound that makes the word, not the letters.

Letters are subdivided into two great classes, vowels and consonants.

155. Vowel is from Lat. *vocalis*, Fr. *voyelle*, — L. *vox, vocis*, the voice. A vowel, as its etymology implies, stands for a *voice*-sound, *i.e.* a sound or tone produced by the unimpeded passage of the breath, without the help of a consonant. Thus it is quite as easy to say *e* as *be*.

156. **Consonant** (Lat. *con*, together with, *sonant*-em, sounding).—This, as its name implies, stands for a sound that cannot be easily, if at all, produced except in company with a vowel. Thus it is not easy to pronounce the letter *b*, until we connect it with some vowel, as *be*. In fact, we find it so difficult to sound *b* by itself, that we have called the consonant *be*, not *b*.

157. **The English Alphabet.**—Our alphabet consists of 26 letters, of which 5 are vowels, 19 are consonants, and 2 are semivowels, *i.e.* dubious letters.

Vowels.—A, a; E, e; I, i; O, o; U, u.

Consonants.—B, b; C, c; D, d; F, f; G, g; H, h; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; V, v; X, x; Z, z.

Semivowels.—Y, y; W, w.

The letter *y* is superfluous *as a vowel*; for it expresses precisely the same sound as *i*. Thus there is no difference of sound between the first syllables of *sin*-ner and *syn*-tax, *sis*-ter and *sys*-tem. *As a consonant*, however, the *y* is indispensable; for we could not express such words as *yoke, yet* without it.

The letter *w as a vowel* is even less useful (if this were possible) than *y*; for it cannot stand alone as *y* can, but is seen only in such combinations as *aw, ew, ow*, all of which could be quite as easily, and in fact often are, spelt *au, eu, ou*. *As a consonant*, however, the letter *w* is indispensable; for it enables us to express such words as *will, wax, wet*.

Note.—The vowels *i* and *u* (care being taken that *u* here stands for the *u* in *full*, and *not* for the *u* in *tune*) acquire the consonantal sounds of *y* and *w* respectively, when they are followed by other vowels. Thus *opinion* is sounded as if it were spelt *o-pin-yon* (three syllables). Similarly if we attempt to sound *william* we get *William*. The letter *w*, when written, is merely a double *v*, though it is called a "double *u*." The symbol *v* is merely another form of *u*, and in Latin during the classical period *u* was the only symbol used.

158. Digraph, diphthong. — It is necessary to understand clearly what is meant by these two words.

A *digraph* is a compound **letter**; a *diphthong* is a compound **sound.** "Digraph" is from Greek *di*, two or twice, and *graph*, to write: it therefore means "a double letter." "Diphthong" is from Greek *di*, two or twice, and *phthong*-os, a sound; it therefore means "a double sound."

Owing to the fewness of our vowel-*symbols* and the multiplicity of our vowel-*sounds* we are sometimes forced to use a digraph for expressing a vowel-sound that is simple or uncompounded, as *au* in *fraud*. On the other hand, it sometimes happens (such is the perversity of our spelling) that we use a single letter to express a vowel-sound that is compound; as *u* in *tu-bu-lar*.

Similarly we sometimes use a digraph to express a single consonantal sound, as *ph* in *Philip* (=*filip*); and a single consonant to express a double sound, as *x* in *tax* (=*taks*).

159. Voiceless and Voiced Consonants.[1] — Consonants are subdivided into two great classes, the Voiceless and the Voiced. Voiced is the name given to those consonants which can be sounded to a slight extent *without the help of a vowel*; the Voiceless are those to which no sound whatever can be given without this help. The Voiced therefore have something of a vocalic character, and are a connecting link between Voiceless consonants and Vowels.

Consonants as thus distinguished go for the most part in pairs. All consonants not included amongst these pairs are Voiced, with the exception of *h*, which is Voiceless.

Voiceless.	*Voiced.*	*Voiceless.*	*Voiced.*	*Voiceless.*	*Voiced.*
k	g	s	z	p	b
ch	j	t	d	f	v
sh	zh	th(ing)	th(is)	wh	w

[1] *Voiceless* and *Voiced* are the names adopted by Professor Skeat. **Surd** (silent) and **Sonant** (sounding) are equally suitable. The names Hard and Soft, Sharp and Flat, are also used; but they are not suitable. An apple may be hard or soft, but not a consonant.

The distinction between Voiceless and Voiced can be easily verified by any one who will make the experiment on his own organs. We can sound *k*, for instance, so long as the *k* is followed by a vowel, as in *ka*. But if we cut off the *a* and try to sound the *k* alone, we cannot produce any sound whatever, though we are conscious of a feeling of muscular tension in the tongue. There is no *voice* in it; and hence the consonant *k* is classed as Voiceless.

On the other hand, if we take the combination *ga*, and cut off the *a*, we find that without the assistance of this or any other vowel it is possible to make an audible guggle. This consonant is therefore classed among the Voiced.

The following facts are of very wide application :—

I. — When two consonants come together, voiceless consonants are assimilated in sound to voiced ones, or voiced to voiceless.

(*a*) In monosyllables the first letter usually holds its ground, and the second has to give way to it. Compare the *s* in *cats* with the *s* in *lads*. In the first the *s* remains voiceless, because it is preceded by the voiceless *t*. In the second the *s* becomes a voiced letter, *i.e.* receives the sound of *z*, because it is preceded by a voiced *d*. Similarly compare the *d* in *looked* with that in *loved*, the *s* in *caps* with that in *cabs*.

(*b*) In dissyllables and compound words the first letter usually gives way to the second one ; as in *five*-teen, sounded and spelt as *fif*-teen ; *cup-board*, sounded, though not spelt, as *cub-board* ; *black-guard*, sounded, though not spelt, as *blag-guard*.

This process is very commonly at work in prefixes. Thus we have accent for *ad*cent, *af*flict for *ad*flict, *ap*pear for *ad*pear, *as*sent for *ad*sent, *at*tain for *ad*tain, *ag*grieve for *ad*grieve, *al*lot for *ad*lot, *an*nul for *ad*nul, *ar*rive for *ad*rive, *in*tellect for *inter*lect, *oc*cur for *ob*cur, *of*fer for *ob*fer, *op*pose for *ob*pose, *pel*lucid for *per*lucid, *pol*lute for *por*lute, *suc*ceed for *sub*ceed, *sup*port for *sub*port, etc.

II.—A voiceless consonant often receives the sound of a voiced one, when it is placed between two vowels. Thus in

breath the *th* is voiceless; but in *breathe*, where it stands between two vowels, it is voiced. Again *rise* is sounded as *rize*, not as *rice*. *Lathe* is sounded, not as *lath*, but with the sound *th* as in *th*(is).

III.—When one consonant is substituted for another, as sometimes happens, a voiceless consonant is displaced by a voiceless one, and a voiced by a voiced. This is especially seen in doublets,—that is, pairs of words derived from the same original elements, but differently spelt:—

Croo*k*, cro*ss* (*k* substituted for *s*, both voiceless). A*p*titude, a*tt*itude (*p* and *t*, both voiceless). Apricoc*k* (older spelling) and apricо*t* (*k* and *t*, both voiceless). Bar*b*, beard (*b* and *d*, both voiced). Wra*p*, *l*ap (*r* and *l*, both voiced). Pru*n*e, p*l*um (*r* and *l*, *n* and *m*, both pairs voiced). *W*ard, *g*uard (*w* and *g*, both voiced).

In *sh*oe (A.S. *scó*) we find *sh* substituted for *sk* (both voiceless). So too in *sh*e (Midland *scæ*). In "see*th*e," "so*dd*en," voiced *th* is interchanged with voiced *d*; so too in mur*th*er (older spelling), mur*d*er. In the 3rd Sing. "cast-*s*" (older form, cast-*es*, cast-*eth*) we find the voiceless *s* substituted for the voiceless *th*.

In A.S. final or medial *h* was sounded almost like *k*, as in "Lo*ch* Lomond." A survival of this occurs in the word *next* (= *nekst*), which in A.S. was spelt *nehst*. In modern English this *h* has been usually respelt as *gh*. In the words "lo*ugh*" and "ho*ugh*" (sounded as *lok*, *hok*), the original sound of the *k* has been retained. But in certain other words, as *enough*, *laugh*, *rough*, *trough*, *tough*, *cough*, the sound of *f* has been substituted for the sound of *k*, both letters being voiceless.

160. Accent, Emphasis, Quantity.—Roughly speaking, both accent and emphasis are the effect of *loudness* (which helps to produce distinctness), while quantity depends on the *time* that it takes to pronounce a syllable.

When we lay stress upon a *single syllable*, *i.e.* pronounce it more loudly and distinctly than the other syllable or

syllables of the same word, this is called **Accent** (Latin *ad*, to, *cantus*, a song).

Sup-ply′, sim′-ply. Re-bel′ (verb), reb′-el (noun).

When we lay stress upon *an entire word, i.e.* pronounce it more loudly and distinctly than any other word of the same sentence or phrase, this is called **Emphasis** (Greek *en*, in or on, *phasis*, speech).

I appeal from Philip *drunk* to Philip *sober*.

Quantity means "the amount of *time* occupied in uttering a vowel or syllable." If the time so occupied is short, the vowel or syllable is said to be short; otherwise, it is said to be long.

A vowel can be long either by nature or by position. (1) Vowels long by nature are exemplified in *fate, fraud, smote, bite*, etc.; vowels short by nature are seen in *fat, pod, hit, wet*, etc. (2) Vowels long by position, but short by nature, are seen in *west, land, flint, stump, bond*. The vowels themselves in such words or syllables are not long, but they are said to be made long by position, because they are followed by a strong combination of consonants, which prevents the syllable from being sounded rapidly.

Note.—In words of three or more syllables the tendency is to throw the accent on the third syllable from the end, as in *sen′-a-tor, doc′-u-ment, hap′-pi-ness, sla′-ve-ry*. In words of three syllables there is sometimes a minor or inferior accent on the last syllable; as in *ref′-u-gee′, cav′-a-lier′, mar′-i-time′, am′-bus-cade′*.

In words of four syllables the accent is often thrown on the third syllable from the end, as in words of three syllables: *ge-ol′-o-gy, ex-trav′-a-gant, cir-cum′-fe-rence, an-tip′-o-des*. But there is no uniform practice; thus we may have the accent thrown on the fourth syllable from the end, with a minor accent on the third syllable: as in *tem′-po-ra′-ry, in′-ter-fe′-rence, con′-tro-ver′-sy, def′-e-ren′-tial*. Or the minor accent may be thrown on the fourth and last syllable: as in *het′-e-ro-dox′, a′-e-ro-plane′*.

161. Importance of Accent in English.—In English as now spoken quantity counts for very little: accent is all-important. Thus the word *guard* is certainly a long syllable when it stands alone; but in the combination

"blackguard" (sounded as *blag'-guard*) the accent thrown upon the first syllable compels us to make the second syllable as short as we can pronounce it. Again, the diphthong *u* (*i.e.* *u* sounded as *yo͞o*) is long by nature, as in *tube*. But in the adjective *tu'-bu-lar* the second *u*, though long by nature like the first one, is, owing to the want of accent, made as short as we can pronounce it.

Such is the effect of accent in our language that an unaccented syllable sometimes disappears altogether. Thus *ap-pren'-tice* has been reduced to *pren'-tice*; *dam'-o-sel* (older spelling) to *dam'-sel*; *co-rone'* (Lat. *corona*) to *crown*; *la-ven'-der-ess* to *laun'-dress*; *with-draw'-ing-room* to *draw'-ing-room*; *pun'-ish* to *punch*; *sa'-cris-tan* to *sex'-ton*; *pa-ral'-y-sic* (Gr. *paralysis*) to *pal'-e-sy*, *pal'-sy*; *en-sam'-ple* to *sam'-ple*; *dis-port'* to *sport*; *hy-drop'-sy* to *drop'-sy*; *af-fray'* to *fray*; *es-quire'* to *squire*; *a-mend'* to *mend*; *ap-peal'* to *peal*; *de-spite'* to *spite*.

The part of speech to which a word belongs often depends upon the accent. If the choice lies between a verb and a noun, both spelt alike, the verb has the accent on the last syllable, the noun on the first. Of this we have at least sixty examples.

Com-pound' (verb), com'-pound (noun). Con-duct' (verb), con'-duct (noun). Con-fine' (verb), con'-fine (noun). Con-vert' (verb), con'-vert (noun). Con-vict' (verb), con'-vict (noun). Re-bel' (verb), reb'-el (noun). De-sert' (verb), des'-ert (noun). Es-cort' (verb), es'-cort (noun). Im-port' (verb), im'-port (noun).

If the choice lies between a verb and an adjective, the verb has the accent on the last syllable, as before: —

Ab-sent' (verb), ab'-sent (adj.) Fre-quent' (verb), fre'-quent (adj.).

If the choice lies between a noun and an adjective, the noun has the accent on the first syllable, as before, and the adjective on the second: —

Com'-pact (noun), com-pact' (adj.). Min'-ute (noun), mi-nute' (adj.). In'-va-lid (noun), in-val'-id (adj.). Au'-gust (noun), au-gust' (adj.).

Note.—Sometimes, however, there is no difference of accent; as *con-tent'* (adj. and verb), *con-tents'* (noun); *con-sent'*, *re-spect'*, *her'-ald*, *sup-port'* (all nouns and verbs); *con'-crete*, *pa'-tient* (both nouns and adjectives). Such examples are not common.

162. Syllabic division. — In dividing a word into syllables we must be guided by the pronunciation (which of course is very much affected by the accent), not by the etymology. "Word-division," says Professor Skeat, "has nothing to do with etymology. From a practical point of view *im'-pu-dence* is right, being based on the spoken language. It is only when we take the word to pieces, that we discover that it is formed from *im-* (for *in-*), the base *pud*, and the suffix *-ence*. Yet we divide the word as *im'-pu-dence*, not as *im'-pud-ence*. The spoken language has *pe-ruse'* at one moment, and *pe-ru'-sal* at another. It rightly regards ease of utterance, and nothing else."

We divide "banquet" into *ban'-quet*; we are compelled to do so by the accent. But if we followed the etymology we should have to divide it into *banqu-et*, and ignore the accent altogether; for the stem of the word is *banque*, Fr.

SECTION 2.—VOWELS: SOUNDS, SYMBOLS, AND SPELLINGS.

163. Twenty vowel-sounds.[1] — If our alphabet were more perfect than it is, we should have one separate symbol to express each separate sound. Unfortunately it is very imperfect; for we have only five vowel-signs (*y* having been excluded as superfluous) to express four times as many sounds. Of these twenty vowel-sounds, sixteen are simple, and four are diphthongal. (The phrase "phonetic symbol" used below means the symbol used to express or denote the

[1] The list of twenty sounds here given is based upon that given by the best authorities,—Professor Skeat, Mr. Sweet, Miss Laura Soames, Mr. Rippmann, and Dr. Murray (in the introduction to the Oxford Dictionary). Dr. Murray's system is much more elaborate, but the basis is the same. As to the phonetic symbol most suitable for each sound, authorities are not equally unanimous. I have myself adopted those symbols which seemed likely to cause the least difficulty to a beginner, and which come nearest to those used in the current Dictionaries.

one particular sound assigned to it. The reason why some are bracketed as pairs, while others are not so bracketed, is explained in § 164.)

A. Four sounds[1] frequently denoted by the symbol *a*; one short, and three long; all simple, none diphthongal.

1. Short: the sound of *a* in *marry*. Phonetic symbol ă.
2. Long: the sound of *a* in *Mary*. Phonetic symbol â.
3. Long: the sound of *a* in *mason*. Phonetic symbol ā.

Note.—Observe that (3) is quite a distinct sound from (2). In sounding (2) you have to open the mouth a great deal wider than in sounding (3). In (2) the *a* is always followed by an *r*; in (3) it never is.

4. Long: the sound of *a* in *path*. Phonetic symbol ȧ.

E. Two sounds commonly denoted by the symbol *e*; one short, and one long; both simple, neither diphthongal.

5. Short: the sound of *e* in *fed*. Phonetic symbol ĕ.
6. Long: the sound of *ee* in *feed*. Phonetic symbol ē.

I. Two sounds commonly denoted by the symbol *i*; one short, and one long: the short is simple, the long diphthongal.

7. Short: the sound of *i* in *bit*. Phonetic symbol ĭ.
8. Long: the sound of *i* in *bite*. Phonetic symbol ī.

O. Three sounds commonly denoted, and a fourth occasionally denoted, by the symbol *o*; two short and two long; all simple, none diphthongal.

9. Short: the sound of *o* in *not*. Phonetic symbol ŏ.
10. Long: the sound of *o* in *frost*. Phonetic symbol au.

[1] To the four *a* sounds given above, some writers add two more, viz. the *a* in *fall* and the *a* in *want*. The latter is evidently a mistake. It creates a redundancy and leads to confusion; for the *a* in *want* is identical in sound with the *o* in *not*, and it never has the sound of *o* except when it is preceded by *w*. In fact, it is an *o* sound, and its connection with *a* is both accidental and exceptional. The former is not an *a* sound either, and is not expressed by *a* except when the *a* is followed by *l*. Professor Skeat associates only four sounds with the symbol *a* (see his Note printed in page 459 of my *English Grammar Past and Present*).

Note.— Since the usual spelling is *au*, as in "fraud," this has been made the phonetic symbol in preference to *o*. But the use of the digraph *au* does not make the sound less simple than it is. In fact (10) is nothing more than (9) drawled or lengthened. If *dog* is drawled, it has the sound of *daug*. If the first syllable of *laurel* is shortened (as in practice it always is), it has the sound of *lŏrel*, rhyming with "moral." *Not* is merely the short of *naught*.

{11. Short : the sound of *o* in *o*-mit. Phonetic symbol o'.
{12. Long : the sound of *o* in *tone*. Phonetic symbol ō.

Note.—There is a great difference between (11) and (9). In sounding (9) you have to open your mouth rather wide, whereas in sounding (11) you almost close it. No. (12) is merely No. (11) drawled or lengthened.

OO. Two sounds commonly denoted by the digraph *oo* ; one short, the other long ; both simple, neither diphthongal.

{13. Short : the sound of *oo* in *stood*. Phonetic symbol, o͝o.
{14. Long : the sound of *oo* in *stool*. Phonetic symbol, o͞o.

U. Two sounds commonly denoted by the symbol *u* ; one short, the other long ; the short simple, the long diphthongal.

15. Short : the sound of *u* in *duck*. Phonetic symbol ŭ.
16. Long : the sound of *u* in *duke*. Phonetic symbol ū.

Oi. One sound commonly denoted by the digraph *oi* ; diphthongal.

17. Long : the sound of *oi* in *toil*. Phonetic symbol oi.

Ou. One sound commonly denoted by the digraph *ou* ; diphthongal.

18. Long : the sound of *ou* in *mouse*. Phonetic symbol ou.

Lastly, we come to two sounds, one short, the other long, and both simple or non-diphthongal. These have been called the Obscure, Neutral, or Indefinite sounds. For the expression of these sounds we have no vowel in our alphabet. So the expedient which the best authorities have agreed upon is to use ə (inverted *e*) for the phonetic symbol.

19. Short : the sound of *er*[1] in gath′-*er*. Phonetic symbol **ə**.
20. Long : the sound of *er*[1] in con-*fer′*. Phonetic symbol **əə**.

164. General results. — We have thus twenty vowel-sounds, of which sixteen are pure or simple, and four are mixed or diphthongal. The sixteen simple sounds are subdivided into (*a*) eight short, viz. **ă, ĕ, ĭ, ŏ, o͝, o͝o, ŭ,** and **ə** ; and (*b*) eight long, viz. **â, ā, ȧ, ē, au, ō, o͞o,** and **əə**. The four diphthongs are **ī, ū, oi,** and **ou.**

Sounds which in the above description are bracketed together as short and long are real pairs. Thus, the *a* of *Mary* is the drawled or lengthened sound of the *a* in *marry* ; the *o* of *frost* is the lengthened sound of the *o* in *not* ; the *o* of *tone* is the lengthened sound of the *o* in *o*-mit ; the *oo* of *stool* is the lengthened sound of the *oo* in *stood* ; the *er* in con-*fer′* is the lengthened and accented sound of the *er* in gath′-*er.*

On the other hand, the sounds which are paired, but not bracketed together, as short and long are not real pairs. Thus the *ee* in *feed* is not the long sound of *e* in *fed* ; the *i* of *bite* is not the long sound of *i* in *bit* ; the *u* of *duke* is not the long sound of *u* in *duck.* Though the same vowel is used in each case, the sounds are entirely distinct. For instance, the sound of *ee* in *feed* pairs not with **ĕ**, but with **ĭ**. The sound of *i* is actually expressed by *ee* in the word " breeches " (sounded short as if it were spelt *briches*). Again, the sound of **ā** pairs not with **ă**, but with **ĕ** ; thus *waist′*-coat is sounded short as if it were spelt *west′*-coat.

165. How the four diphthongs are produced. — Let us take each diphthong in turn.[2]

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[1] In Scotland, however, and in some of the northern counties of England, the *r* is trilled, that is, distinctly sounded as *r*. Owing to this peculiarity of the Northern dialect, I have been reluctantly compelled to adopt from Mr. Skeat, Mr. Sweet, Miss Soames, and Dr. Murray the awkward-looking symbol **ə**. This sound is so natural to human speech that hesitating speakers use it to fill up the pauses in their sentences. In books such pauses are printed thus :— " I—*er*—am aware—*er*—that," etc.

[2] It has been pointed out by phoneticians (Skeat, Sweet, Soames, Dr. Murray) that the long vowels which I have written as **ā** and **ō** are usually sounded with the glides *i* and *u* respectively, as a^i, o^u, and that hence these

ĭ. The first vowel-sound that helps to make this diphthong is obsolete in modern English, though still heard in the north-country dialects, where the *a* of *man* has retained a sound intermediate between ă and ȧ (Nos. 1 and 4). This intermediate sound rapidly followed by the *i* of *bit* produces a third sound distinct from both. The spelling, *ai*, is seen in the word *aisle* (sounded as *īl* or *īle*).

Note.—The sound of *a*, when added to *i*, would produce a diphthong, like the sound of *ai* in *Isaiah*, *naive*, *Kaiser*.

ŭ. Made up of $i + \bar{oo}$. These, when sounded rapidly in succession, give $y\bar{oo}$, like the *u* in *duke* (sounded as "dy$\bar{oo}$k").

oi. Made up of *au* (see No. 10 in § 163) + *i*. The utterance of these two simple sounds in rapid succession produces a mixed sound distinct from both.

ou. Made up of ȧ (see No. 4 in § 163) + $\breve{oo}$. The utterance of these two simple sounds in rapid succession produces a mixed sound distinct from both.

Note.—We now see very clearly what was stated above in § 158, that the use of a digraph or two letters to express a sound must not be taken to indicate that the sound is diphthongal or mixed. Thus **I** and **ŭ**, though expressed by single vowels, are both diphthongs; while **au**, **$\breve{oo}$**, **$\bar{oo}$**, **əə**, though expressed by digraphs, are all simple sounds.

166. Spellings of the twenty vowel-sounds. — It will be convenient to follow the order of vowels, simple and diphthongal, given in § 163.

1. **ă**: mad, plaid, have, salmon, thresh.

2. **â**: Mary, airy, bearer, heiress, mayoralty, therein.

3. **ā**: fatal, fate, tail, play, campaign, straight, vein, they, reign, weigh, steak, gaol, gauge, eh, dahlia, half penny. French words: fête, conjé, ballet, champagne, demesne.

4. **ȧ**: path, art, heart, clerk, aunt, bazaar, palm, hurrah, plaister. Fr. words: vase, éclat.

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vowels are in a certain sense diphthongal. They are not diphthongal, however, to the same extent that **I**, **ŭ**, **oi**, and **ou** are. For the sake of simplicity I have followed Miss Laura Soames in treating them as simple vowels, not as diphthongs.

5. ĕ: bed, head, any, said, says, leopard, leisure, reynard, ate, friend, Thames, bury.

6. ē: me, theme, seen, each, field, seize,[1] key, Cæsar, police, invalid, quay, people, Beauchamp.

7. ĭ: bit, nymph, pretty, give, surfeit, married, happy, guinea, donkey, women, busy, breeches, sieve.

8. ī: idol, try, mine, lyre, sign, high, height, die, rye, island, aisle, choir, indict, eye.

9. ŏ: from, want, shone, laurel, knowledge, yacht, hough.

10. aŭ: haul, law, lost, tall, talk, pour, ought, broad, sore, lord, war, water, aught, Vaughan, gone.

11. o': hero, follow, heroes, followed, furlough. Fr. depót.

12. ō: no, move, both, toad, toe, dough, mow, brooch, oh, yeoman, sew, Cockburn. Fr. mauve, beau.

13. o͝o: stood, full, could, wolf.

14. o͞o: fool, tomb, shoe, move, soup, through, truth, blue, juice, sleuth-hound, slew, rude, manœuvre.

15. ŭ: shut, blood, son, come, touch.

16. ū: (yo͞o): du-ty, tune, due, suit, few, feud, lieu, view, impugn.

17. oi: coil, boy.

18. ou: loud, down.

19. ə:[2] Chi'-na, Sa'-rah, suf'-fer, squir'-rel, but'-ton, Eu'-rope, thor'-ough, tor'-toise, fa'-mous, meer'-schaum, waist-coat, cup'-board, pleas'-ure, col'-lar, mar'-tyr, bun'-kum, an'-chor, ran'-cour, mur'-mur (all in unaccented syllables. This sound is never accented).

20. əə: herd, erred, heard, bird, stirred, turn, blurred, word, colo-nel (sounded as ker'-nel). (All in accented syllables.)

One hundred and ninety spellings (not counting the French words) for twenty vowel-sounds.

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[1] The following is a list of all the words in which *ei* has the sound of *ē*:— conceive, perceive, deceive, receive (and their derivatives), ceiling, seize, either, neither, plebeian, weir, weird, seignory, inveigle, counterfeit. The words "either" and "neither" are by some persons sounded as *ither* and *nither*.

[2] Final *r* or *re* is not trilled in the Southern dialect as it is in the Northern, but is sounded as ə. Thus *fair* is sounded as *fai-ə*, *poor* as *poo-ə*, *pour* as *pou-ə*, *more* as *mau-ə*, *spire* as *spi-ə*. But if the *r* is followed by a vowel, it retains and recovers its consonantal sound, as in the words *fair-y*, *poor-est*, *spir-al*, and a great many more.

167. Same spelling with different sounds.—We may now invert the process, and show how the same symbol (*i.e.* the same spelling) may be used to denote different sounds :—

a : *cat, tall, path, many, made, care, want, steward.*
a—e : *rave, have, are.*
ai : *maid, said, plaid, aisle.*
au : *aunt, haunt, gauge, mauve, meer-schaum.*
e : *he, her, clerk, bed, pretty.*
e—e : *there, here.*
ea : *heat, steak, heart, head.*
ei : *vein, leisure, seize, sur-feit, height.*
ey : *they, key, eye.*
ew : *new, sew.*
i—e : *bite, niche, police.*
ie : *field, die, sieve.*
o : *hot, cold, wolf, women, whom, son, button, lost, hero.*
o—e : *cove, prove, love, move, shove.*
oa : *load, broad, cup-board.*
oe : *shoe, toe.*
oo : *hook, fool, brooch, flood, door.*
ou : *pour, young, thou, soup, soul.*
ough : *rough, hiccough, cough, hough, trough, bough, though, through.*
al : *fall, palm, shall, hospital.*
ol : *cold, wolf, golf, sym'-bol.*
ar : *ar'-row, art, col-lar.*

SECTION 3.—CONSONANTS : SOUNDS, SYMBOLS, AND SPELLINGS.

168. Twenty-five Consonantal sounds.—In English as now spoken there are altogether *twenty-five* consonantal sounds. The symbols used to denote these sounds, if we place them as nearly as we can in the order of the alphabet, run as follows :—

1. b	4. g	7. k	10. n	13. s	16. w	19. ch	22. th(ing)
2. d	5. h	8. l	11. p	14. t	17. y	20. ng	23. sh
3. f	6. j	9. m	12. r	15. v	18. z	21. th(is)	24. zh
							25. wh

169. Simple and Compound. — Out of the twenty-five sounds enumerated above all are simple or uncompounded except two, viz. *j* and *ch*. These are called by Dr. Murray (in the Oxford Dictionary) "consonantal diphthongs," because he, with other phoneticians, has analysed *ch* into *t* + *sh*, and *j* into *d* + *zh*.

Though we have to accept this analysis not only on the word of the best authorities, but also on the testimony of our own experience, it would be very inconvenient to write *tsh* for *ch*, and *dzh* for *j*. Moreover, the two sounds in question are of such frequent occurrence in our language, that *j* and *ch*, even though the sounds are diphthongal, deserve a place in the list of our consonantal symbols.

170. Redundant consonants.—It has been said that "our alphabet contains four redundant consonants—*c*, *j*, *q*, *x*."

C is superfluous, because (1) when it precedes *a*, *o*, or *u*, it expresses the sound of *k*; (2) when it precedes *e* or *i*, it expresses the sound of *s*; (3) when it is combined with *h*, as in *church*, the digraph *ch* has been analysed into *tsh*.

J is superfluous, because it has been analysed into *dzh*.

Q is superfluous, because it is never used except in combination with *u*, and the combination can be expressed equally well by *kw*, as in *awkward*.

X is superfluous, because in such words as *extra* it is equivalent to *ks*, and in *example* to *gz*.

171. Main divisions of consonants.—The consonantal sounds can be classified according to the organ chiefly used in uttering them. Any part of our bodily structure that helps us to utter articulate sounds may be called an organ of speech. The chief organs are the tongue, the throat, the palate, the teeth, and the lips. By means of these organs the breath is modified as it passes through the larynx and comes out by the mouth.

The most important of all these organs is the tongue; for the loss of this organ involves the loss of articulate speech. Since the tongue is the necessary helpmate to the other four

organs, there is no separate class of Lingual (Lat. *lingua*, tongue).

The main divisions of consonants are as follows :—

I. **Gutturals** (Lat. *guttur*, throat) : *k*, *g*, *ng* (as in *thing*).
II. **Palatals** (Lat. *palat*-um, palate) : *ch*, *j* | *sh*, *zh* | *y*, *r*.
III. **Dentals** (Lat. *dent*-em, tooth) : *t*, *d* | *s*, *z* | *n*, *l* | *th*(in), *th*(is).
IV. **Labials** (Lat. *labi*-um, lip) : *p*, *b*, *m* | *f*, *v* | *wh*, *w*.

I. **Gutturals** : these three sounds are produced by raising the *back* of the tongue against the *soft* palate, viz. that part of the palate that lies farther back in the throat (Lat. *guttur*) :—*k*, as in *k*een ; *g*, as in *g*ood ; *ng*, as in thi*ng* or fi*n*-ger. The last, though expressed by a digraph, is as " simple " a sound as the other two. It occurs only when it is followed by another guttural, *k* or *g*, as in bla*n*-ket, fi*n*-ger, or when it comes at the end of a word, as in thi*ng*, ridi*ng*. There is a great difference of sound between the *n* of fi*n*-(ger) and the *n* of fi*n*. The former is a guttural, which you cannot utter without opening your jaws ; the latter a dental, which you utter with closed teeth.

II. **Palatals** : all these sounds are produced by raising the *front* of the tongue towards the *hard* palate, or palate proper (viz. that part of the palate that lies further forward than the soft palate) :—*ch*, as in *ch*air ; *j*, as in *j*oke ; *sh*, as in *sh*ip ; *zh*, as in seizure ; *y*, as in *y*ield ; *r*, as in *r*ob. All of these are simple sounds with the exception of the first two (§ 169).

III. **Dentals** : all these sounds are produced by bringing the point of the tongue towards the teeth or upper gums :—*t*, as in *t*ail ; *d*, as in *d*og ; | *s*, as in *s*eal ; *z*, as in *z*eal ; | *n*, as in *n*ame ; *l*, as in *l*ine ; | *th*(ing), as in brea*th* ; *th*(is), as in brea*th*e. In sounding the first pair, *t* and *d*, the point of the tongue touches the upper teeth. In sounding the second pair, *s* and *z*, it comes very near the roots of the upper teeth, but does not quite touch them. In sounding the third pair, *n* and *l*, it touches the upper gums. In sounding the fourth pair, *th*(ing) and *th*(is), it is placed between the upper and the lower teeth.

IV. **Labials**: all these sounds are produced by closing the lips: —*p*, as in *poor*; *b*, as in *boon*; *m*, as in *moon*; | *f*, as in *fox*; *v*, as in *vixen*; | *wh*, as in *whine*; *w*, as in *wine*. In sounding *p*, *b*, and *m* the lips are closed against each other, while the tongue is left to rest on the lower jaw. In sounding *f* and *v* the edges of the upper teeth are pressed against the lower lip, while the tongue rests on the lower jaw. In sounding *wh* and *w* the lips are rounded with the corners drawn together, while the tongue is almost in the same position as in sounding *g*. Hence *w* and *g* are liable to be interchanged, as in *w*ard (A.S. *w*eard), *g*uard (French spelling).

172. **The Glottal "h"** (Greek *glottis*, mouth of the windpipe). "Glottal" is the name given to the open throat-sound expressed by the letter *h*. In sounding *h* we make no use of the palate, tongue, teeth, or lips. It is a mere breath-sound or aspirate, and stands alone in our alphabet.

The uncertainty about sounding or not sounding this unfortunate letter appears to have arisen in some way from the collision between English and French, which resulted from the Norman Conquest. In Anglo-Saxon the *h* was very distinctly sounded; in French very indistinctly. This may perhaps help to account for the confusion.

173. **Minor subdivisions of Consonants.**—There are a few subdivisions of consonants, which cross with the four main divisions described above, and sometimes with one another.

Sibilants (Lat. *sibilant-es*, hissing). On account of the hissing sound which they express, the name "sibilant" has been given to the letters *s*, *z*, *sh*, and *zh*.

Liquids (Lat. *liquid-us*, flowing). This is the name given to the letters *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *ng*.

Nasals (Lat. *nas-us*, nose); the name given to the three letters *n*, *m*, *ng*. These are called nasals, because in forming the sounds which they express the breath passes up the nose-passage and escapes through the nostril. If the nose-passage is blocked by a cold, *ng* (a guttural) is

sounded almost as *g* (another guttural), *n* (a dental) almost as *d* (another dental), and *m* (a labial) almost as *b* (another labial).

Note.—When an *intrusive* consonant, *i.e.* one not belonging to the root, is inserted into a word, the intruder is usually of the same class as the consonant going before :—

Num-*b*-er (Lat. *num-er-us*) ; hum-*b*-le (Lat. *hum-il-is*) ; ten-*d*-er (Lat. *ten-er*) ; gen-*d*-er (Lat. *gen-er-is*). Observe the *m* and *b* are both labials, while the *n* and *d* are both dentals.

174. Spellings of the Consonantal sounds. — We shall take each of the twenty-five sounds in the order in which their respective symbols are given in § 168 :—

1. **b** : *b*ond (initial), e*bb* (final), *b*uoy, cup-*b*oard.
2. **d** : bon*d*, lad*d*er, call*ed*, hor*d*e, wou*ld*.
3. **f** : *f*elt, whi*ff*, *ph*legm, lau*gh*, ha*lf*, o*f*ten, sa*pph*ire, li*eu*tenant (where *ieu* = *ef*).
4. **g** : *g*ame, e*gg*, *gh*ost, *g*uard.
5. **h** : *h*ot, *wh*o.
6. **j** : *j*ob, *g*ist, *G*eorge, ju*dg*e, ju*dg*ment, sol*d*ier, Greenwi*ch*, *g*aol.
7. **k** : *k*ill, call, account, ba*ck*, bisc*u*it, *qu*ell, li*qu*or, grotes*que*, a*ch*e, lou*gh*.
8. **l** : *l*ake, ki*ll*, is*l*and, ai*sle*, gaze*lle*, sera*gl*io, Woo*l*wich.
9. **m** : *m*end, ha*mm*er, hy*mn*, la*mb*, progra*mme*, phle*gm*, Ha*mp*den, dra*chm*.
10. **n** : pi*n*, i*nn*, dei*gn*, *kn*ee, *gn*aw, Joh*n*, Lincol*n*, Wednesday, ri*b*a*nd*, bor*ne*, A*nne*, coi*gne*.
11. **p** : *p*lace, ha*pp*y, ste*pp*e, Cla*p*ham, hiccou*gh*.
12. **r** : *r*ain, bo*rr*ow, *rh*ythm, *wr*ite, No*r*wich.
13. **s** : *s*elf, ki*ss*, den*se*, *c*ell, dance, *sc*ene, coale*sce*, *sch*ism, quartz, *sw*ord, has*t*en, is*th*mus, *ps*alm, creva*sse*.
14. **t** : we*t*, ke*tt*le, gaze*tte*, *Th*ames, looke*d*, *tw*o, de*bt*, indi*ct*, recei*pt*, ya*cht*, ca*ste*.
15. **v** : *v*est, ha*ve*, na*vv*y, o*f*, ne*ph*ew, ha*lve*.
16. **w** : *w*ine, *wh*en, su*a*ve, choir.
17. **y** : *y*ield, u*n*ion, hallelu*j*ah. French vi*gn*ette (*gn* = ny) cotil*l*on.
18. **z** : zeal, fi*zz*, hi*s*, clean*se*, sci*ss*ors, *X*erxes, fur*ze*, Wednes-day, Chi*sw*ick, Wind*s*or, veni*s*on, czar, busi*n*ess.

19. **ch**: *ch*urch, ni*ch*e, la*tch*, na*t*ure, ques*t*ion, righ*t*eous, violoncello.

20. **ng**: thi*ng*, fi*ng*er, to*ngue*, ha*nd*kerchief, Birmi*ngh*am.

21. **th**(is): *th*en, soo*th*e.

22. **th**(ing): brea*th*, Ma*tth*ew.

23. **sh**: *sh*all, A*s*ia, tissue, pen*s*ion, mousta*che*, fu*chs*ia, mi*ss*ion, fa*shi*on, officiate, so*ci*al, o*c*ean, con*sc*ience, *sch*edule, vi*ti*ate, por*ti*on, lun*che*on, *ch*aise.

24. **zh**: seizure, leisure, occa*s*ion, trans*i*tion. Fr. rou*ge*, r*é*gime, *ju*jube (sometimes sounded as *jujube*).

25. **wh**: *wh*ile (often sounded merely as *w*, except in North Britain).

One hundred and sixty-six spellings (not counting the French words) for twenty-five different sounds.

175. Same spelling with different sounds:—

c: violoncello, *c*at, *c*ity.
ch: a*ch*e, *ch*aise, su*ch*, dra*ch*m (silent).
j: *J*ew, *ju*jube, hallelu*j*ah.
ge: rou*ge*, villa*ge*, *ge*t.
gi: *gi*ve, *gi*nger.
ti: no*ti*on, ques*ti*on, trans*i*tion.
s: ha*s*, ga*s*.
sc: *sc*ene, *sc*arce.
sch: *sch*eme, *sch*edule.
si: occa*si*on, dispers*i*on.
th: *th*in, *th*is, *Th*ames.
x: e*x*tra, e*x*ample, *X*erxes. Fr. beau*x*.
ph: nym*ph*, ne*ph*ew.
gh: *gh*ost, lau*gh*, hou*gh*.
qu: li*quo*r, *qu*een.

176. Causes of discrepancies in spelling. — In the earliest form of English every simple sound was expressed by its own particular symbol, and no sound (with very few exceptions) had more than one symbol. The spelling therefore was in the main "phonetic." But the phonetic system was marred and eventually ruined (*a*) by the mixture of French words with English consequent on the Norman Conquest; (*b*) the disuse of marks to denote the

lengthening of vowels; (*c*) the loss of the Old English symbols *æ* and *ǽ*, which left the vowel *a* much more work to do than it had before; (*d*) changes in the pronunciation both of vowels and consonants,—changes that were seldom accompanied by a change of spelling; (*e*) the respelling of many of our words during the Revival of Learning (A.D. 1500–1600), so as to bring them more in accordance with the classical originals: thus *vitailles* was respelt as "victuals" (Lat. *victus*, food); *dett* as "debt" (Lat. *debit*-um); *dout* as "doubt" (Lat. *dubit*-are); *sutil* as "subtle" (Lat. *subtil*-is).

Exercise 43.

(*a*) 1. Distinguish between *emphasis*, *accent*, *quantity*. 2. Give two instances in which words, identical in spelling, are distinguished one from another by accent. 3. "A perfect alphabet would contain a separate letter to represent every simple or elementary sound." Show that the letter *a* in English represents several simple or elementary sounds. 4. What single letters in our alphabet represent compound sounds? 5. "Our alphabet contains four redundant letters—*c*, *j*, *q*, *x*." Discuss this statement. 6. Write two words of one syllable, in the first of which the letter *i* represents a pure vowel sound, and in the second a diphthongal sound. 7. How do you account for the fact that the spelling of English words is often at variance with their pronunciation? 8. Give one example under each of the following to show that in some words—

(i.) The letter *i* represents a diphthongal sound.
(ii.) The letter *s* is written where *z* is sounded.
(iii.) A letter is not sounded at all.

9. State and illustrate the different sounds of the letter *s*. (*Oxford and Cambridge Locals.*)

(*b*) 1. What consonants are redundant in the English alphabet, and in what respects is our alphabet defective in consonants? 2. The sound of *a* in *hate* is expressed in several different ways in written English (as in *bait*, *may*, *whey*, *weight*, *gaol*, *gauge*, etc.). Show that there are also several ways in which the sound of *e* in *me* is represented in writing. 3. Give four true Diphthongs,

four Liquids, four Sibilants, and four Labials. 4. Explain the terms *letter, diphthong, Labial, Palatal.* How many sounds has the combination *ough*? 5. Quote examples of English words containing *ei* or *ie* (four of each), and of verbs ending in *ceed* or *cede* (two of each). 6. What is a *diphthong*? Give six examples, all different, of so-called diphthongs which are not really diphthongs. 7. How many *true* diphthongs have we in the English language? Quote three words as examples of each of them. (*College of Preceptors.*)

CHAPTER XXXIV.—PECULIAR PLURALS: ORIGIN AND USES.

177. **Man, men,** etc., see § 7 (i.).—The eight Plurals there shown are called **Mutation**-plurals, because they are formed by a change or mutation of the inside vowel of the singular. Once there were many more such plurals than there are now. The original plural of *man* was "*mann-is.*" The *i* in the ending *-is* had the effect of changing the *a* of *mann* or *man* into a sound more like itself; thus *mann-is* became *menn-is.* The effect of *i* in thus changing the preceding vowel is called Vowel-mutation in English and *Umlaut* in German. When the *-is* was dropped, nothing but the vowel-change was left to distinguish the Plural from the Singular. This Mutation-method became obsolete when the Anglo-Saxon system of grammar decayed.

178. **Ox, oxen,** etc., see § 7 (ii.).—The four Plurals there shown are formed by a process that is now as obsolete as that of vowel-mutation (§ 177). In Old English *-an* (now written *-en*) was not less common as a Plural ending than *-as* (now written *-es* or *-s*). But *-as* or *-es* became much more common when the decay of Anglo-Saxon was setting in. Afterwards, when French influence had begun to work (about 200 years after the Norman Conquest), the French Plural in *-s* helped to drive the nail home, so that *-s* or *-es* became eventually the sign of the Plural for almost all our nouns.

179. Foreign Plurals.—We have some Plurals which have been borrowed direct from foreign nouns :—

Latin Plurals.—From *-um* (Sing.) to *-a* (Plur.): addend-*a*, agend-*a*, dat-*a*, errat-*a*, strat-*a*, memorand-*a* (or memorand-*ums*).

From *-us* (Sing.) to *-i* (Plur.): alumn-*i*, fung-*i*, radi-*i*, geni-*i* (or genius-*es*).

Other Latin Plurals are: genera (genus), stamina (stamen), indices (index), series (series), species (species), apparatus (apparatus).

Greek Plurals.—From *-is* (Sing.) to *-es* (Plur.): analyses, bases, hypotheses, parentheses, oases.

From *-on* (Sing.) to *-a* (Plur.): phenomen-*a*, criteri-*a*.

Italian Plurals: banditti (or bandits), dilettanti.

French Plurals: beaux, bureaux, chateaux, messieurs, mesdames.

Hebrew Plurals: cherubim (or cherubs), seraphim (or seraphs).

180. Nouns of Multitude.—These are a kind of Collective noun (§ 17) which have a plural sense, though they remain singular in form. See § 100, Rule IV.

The *poultry* (= fowls) are doing well. These *cattle* (= cows) are mine. These *vermin* (= insects, etc.) do much harm. These *people* (= persons) have returned home. (*People*, when preceded by *a* or used in the Plural number, as "a people," "peoples," signifies "nation.")

181. Some nouns, which take a Plural at ordinary times, use the Singular instead of the Plural to express some specific quantity or number :—

A twelve-*month*. A three-*foot* rule. An eight-*day* clock. A six-*year*-old horse. A fort-*night* (contraction of "fourteen-night"). Forty *head* of cattle. Twelve *pound* weight. Ten *sail* of the line. A six-*penny* piece.

Note.—*Six-pence* has a Collective sense denoting a single coin, which makes the noun appear to be Singular, so that we say *a sixpence* (Singular), *sixpences* (Plural). The latter is really a double Plural, the *ce* being a substitute for *s*.

182. Two forms of Plural, each with a separate meaning :—

Brother	Brothers,	*sons of the same mother.*
	Brethren,	*members of the same society.*
Cherub	Cherubim,	*angels of a certain rank.*
	Cherubs,	*images or models of a cherub.*
Cloth	Cloths,	*kinds or pieces of cloth* (Distributive).
	Clothes,	*articles of dress* (Collective).
Cow	Cows,	(There is no real difference, except that *kine*
	Kine,	has now become archaic.)
Die	Dies,	*stamps for coining* (Distributive).
	Dice,	*small cubes used in games* (Collective).
Folk	Folk,	*men or persons*, as "the old folk."
	Folks,	*nations* (obsolete or very rare).
Genius	Geniuses,	*men of genius or talent.*
	Genii,	*fabulous spirits of the air.*
Index	Indexes,	*tables of contents.*
	Indices,	*signs used in algebra.*
Pea	Peas,	Common Noun, as "the pod contained 9 *peas.*"
	Pease,	Material Noun, as "*pease* pudding."
Penny	Pennies,	*penny-pieces* (Distributive).
	Pence,	(Collective), as in "sixpence."
Staff	Staves,	*sticks or poles.*
	Staffs,	*departments in the army.*
Stamen	Stamens,	*male organs of flowers.*
	Stamina,	*endurance, vigour*, lit. *threads.*
Shot	Shot,	*little balls discharged from a gun.*
	Shots,	*discharges; as, "He had two shots."*

183. Different senses of Singular and Plural :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
Advice, counsel.	*Advices*, information.
Air, atmosphere.	*Airs*, demeanour.
Ban, a curse (under a *ban*).	*Banns*, announcement (*banns* of marriage).
Beef, flesh of ox.	*Beeves*, cattle, bulls and cows.
Compass, range or extent.	*Compasses*, an instrument.
Copper, a metal.	*Coppers*, pennies, pence.
Domino, a cape with a hood.	*Dominoes*, the game so-called.
Force, strength or energy.	*Forces*, army.
Good, benefit.	*Goods*, movable property.
Iron, a metal.	*Irons*, fetters made of iron.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Physic, medicine.	*Physics,* natural science.
Return, coming back.	*Returns,* statistics.
Salt, seasoning substance.	*Salts,* smelling salts.
Sand, pulverised rock.	*Sands,* a tract of sandy land.
Vapour, invisible steam.	*Vapours,* dejection, low spirits.
Vesper, evening.	*Vespers,* evening prayers.
Water, the element.	*Waters,* springs, masses of water, etc.

184. Two meanings in the Plural against one in the Singular :—

Singular.		*Plural.*	
Colour,	colour.	*Colours*	1. Kinds of colour. 2. *Flag of regiment.*
Custom,	habit.	*Customs*	1. Habits. 2. *Toll* or *tax.*
Element,	simple substance.	*Elements*	1. Simple substances. 2. *Rudiments or first principles of a subject.*
Effect,	result.	*Effects*	1. Results. 2. *Goods and chattels.*
Letter,	1. Of alphabet. 2. Epistle.	*Letters*	1. Of alphabet. 2. *Epistles.* 3. *Literature.*
Manner,	mode or way.	*manners*	1. Modes, ways. 2. *Behaviour.*
Number,	as in counting.	*Numbers*	1. As in counting. 2. *Poetry.*
Pain,	suffering.	*Pains*	1. Sufferings. 2. *Trouble, care.*
Part,	portion.	*Parts*	1. Portions. 2. *Abilities.*
Premise,	a statement or proposition.	*Premises*	1. Propositions. 2. *Buildings.*
Quarter,	a fourth part.	*Quarters*	1. Fourth parts. 2. *Lodgings.*
Spectacle,	anything seen.	*Spectacles*	1. Things seen. 2. *Eye-glasses.*

185. Two meanings in the Singular against one in the Plural :—

Singular.		*Plural.*	
Abuse	1. Wrong use. 2. Reproaches.	*Abuses,*	wrong uses.
Foot	1. Part of body. 2. Infantry.	*Feet,*	parts of body.
Horse	1. A quadruped. 2. Cavalry.	*Horses,*	quadrupeds.
Issue	1. Result. 2. Offspring.	*Issues,*	results.
Light	1. A lamp. 2. Radiance.	*Lights,*	lamps.
People	1. A nation. 2. Persons.	*Peoples,*	nations.
Powder	1. A medicinal mixture. 2. Gunpowder.	*Powders,*	medicinal mixtures.
Practice	1. Habitual act. 2. Professional connection.	*Practices,*	habitual acts.
Stone	1. A piece of rock. 2. Fourteen pounds.	*Stones,*	pieces of rock.
Wood	1. A forest. 2. Timber.	*Woods,*	forests.

186. **True Singulars used as Plurals.**—By a "True Singular" we mean that the final *s* is part of the original Singular noun, and not a sign of the Plural.

Such nouns, though Singular by etymology, are liable to be considered Plural on account of the final *s*; and all except the first of these named below are now always used as if they were Plural.

Summons (Fr. *semonce*).—This noun is still correctly used as a Singular; as "I received *a* summons to attend"; "*This* summons reached me to-day." The plural form is *summonses.*

Alms (A.S. *ælmesse*).—"He asked *an alms*" (New Testament). But now the word is generally used as if it were Plural; as, "I gave alms to the beggar, and for *these* he thanked me."

Eaves (A.S. *efese*).—The edge or lower borders of the roof of a house. The word is now always used as a Plural; as, "The eaves *are* not yet finished."

Riches (Fr. *richesse*).—This too is really a Singular; as, "In one hour *is* so great riches come to naught" (*New Testament*); but now, on account of the final *s*, this noun is always used as a Plural; as, "Riches *do* not last for ever."

Cherries (Mid. Eng. *cheris*): cf. Latin, *ceras*-us.—The *s* looked so like a Plural ending, that a Singular *cherry* was coined.

Peas (A.S. *pis-a*, Singular).—When the *a* was lost, the final *s* looked like a Plural; so a Singular *pea* was coined.

The vaunting poets found nought worth a *pease*.—SPENCER.

Of the bigness of a great *peaze*.—RALEIGH, *Hist. World*.

(Spelt with a *z* by Raleigh, because it was so pronounced.)

187. True Plurals used as Singulars.—In such nouns the final *s* is really a sign of the Plural:—

Amends.—This is sometimes used as a Singular and sometimes as a Plural; as, "*An* honourable amends" (ADDISON).

Means.—This is now almost always used as a Singular; as, "By *this* means."

News.—This is now almost always used as a Singular; as, "Ill news *runs* apace." Mid. Eng. *new-es* (plural); French *nouvelles*.

Innings.—This is a word used in cricket to denote the turn for going in and using the bat. It is *always* used as a Singular; as, "We have not yet had *an* innings"; "Our eleven beat the other by *an* innings and ten runs."

Gallows.—The framework from which criminals are hanged. This noun is used as a Singular; as, "They fixed up *a* gallows."

Odds.—A word used in betting to denote the difference of one wager against another. "We gave him *a* heavy odds against ourselves."

Sledge.—A respelling of *sleds*, plural of *sled*, which is still used in Canada for "sledge." This is always used as Singular.

CHAPTER XXXV.—GENDER OF NOUNS: ORIGIN AND HISTORY.

183. Different Words for Masculine and Feminine: see § 9.—The origin of the words belonging to this list is given below :—

Bachelor, maid, spinster.—Late Lat. *baccalarius*, origin unknown. A.S. *mægd-en*, little maid (the *-en* being Diminutive). A.S. *spinnestre*, a woman who spins (the *-estre* denoting a female).

Boar, sow.—A.S. *bár* (male pig). A.S. *sugu*, sow. No connection with "swine," A.S. *swín*.

Boy, girl.—Dutch *boef*, Frisian *boi*, boy. Old Low German *gör*, child, with diminutive suffix *-l* added to it : hence *girl*.

Brother, sister.—A.S. *bróthor* (cf. Lat. *frater*). A.S. *seostor*, Norse *systir*; cf. Latin *soror* for *sosor*.

Buck, doe.—A.S. *bucc-a*, male fallow deer. A.S. *dá*, doe.

Bull, cow.—A.S. *bull-uc*, a bull-calf. A.S. *cú*, cow.

Bullock or **steer, heifer.**—A.S. *bull-uc* as above. A.S. *steór*, steer; A.S. *héah-fore* (lit. a high, *i.e.* full grown cow-calf).

Cock, hen.—A.S. *cocc*, of imitative origin. A.S. *henn-e*, hen.

Colt or **foal, filly.**—A.S. *colt*, the young of any animal. A.S. *fól-a*, male young; Norse *fyl-ja*, a female foal.

Duck, drake.—Middle Eng. *duk-e*, a bird that bobs the head (Feminine). A.S. *ened-rake, end-rake*. Perhaps the *en* of *endrake* became confounded with the Indefinite article *an*, leaving only *drake*. In A.S. *ened* means "duck." But Dr. Murray declares himself unable to ascertain the meaning of *rake*, though he has decided that it did not signify "lord" or "master," as is usually asserted. *Rake* is not a suffix, as has been stated.

Drone, bee.—A.S. *drán*, the hummer. A.S. *beó, bí*, bee.

Earl, countess.—A.S. *corl*, a man. Old Fr. *cont-esse*, Fem. of "count."

Father, mother. A.S. *fæder*, father. A.S. *móder*, mother.

Friar or **monk, nun.**—Old Fr. *freire*, brother (cf. Lat. *frater*). A.S. *munec* (Late Lat. *monachus*, one who lives alone). A.S. *nunne*, a nun or spiritual mother.

Gaffer, gammer. The first is the short of Eng. *grandfather*; the second of Fr. *grand-mère* (grandmother).

Gander, goose.—A.S. *gós*, from the root *gan-s*, in which the

s is only a suffix. A.S. *gan-d-ra*, in which the *ra* is a suffix, and the *d* is an intruder, as in *ten-d-er*, Lat. *ten-er*.

Gentleman, lady.—Fr. *gentil-homme*, a well-born man. For *lady*, see below under **Lord.**

Hart, roe.—A.S. *heort*, hart. A.S. *rá*, roe.

Horse, mare.—A.S. *hors*, a runner, courser. A.S. *mere*, mare.

Husband, wife.—Norse *hús-bóndi*, house-occupier. A.S. *wíf*, woman or female.

King, queen.—A.S. *cyn-ing*, one of noble kin. A.S. *cwén*, woman.

Lord, lady.—A.S. *hláford hláf-weard*, loaf-keeper. A.S. *hláf-dige*, loaf-kneader.

Man, woman.—A.S. *mann*, person of either sex. A.S. *wíf-man*, a female person.

Milter, spawner.—"Milter" means a fish with *milt* or *milk*. "Spawner" means a fish that scatters eggs. Old Fr. *espandre*, to scatter.

Nephew, niece.—Old Fr. *neveu*, Lat. *nepot-em*, a grandson. Old Fr. *niece*, Lat. *neptis*, grand-daughter or niece.

Ram or **wether, ewe.**—A.S. *ram*, a male sheep. A.S. *wether*, a yearling. A.S. *eowu*, a female sheep; cf. Lat. *ov-is*.

Sir, madam, or **madame.**—Fr. *sire*, Lat. *senior*, older. Fr. *madame*, Lat. *mea domina*, my lady.

Sire, dam.—Origin as above.

Son, daughter.—A.S. *sunu*, son. A.S. *dóhtor*, daughter.

Stag, hind.—Origin of "stag" unknown. Its derivation from A.S. *stig*-an, to mount, is disputed. A.S. *hind*, female deer.

Uncle, aunt.—Fr. *oncle*, Lat. *aeunculus*, a little grandfather. Old Fr. *ante*, Lat. *amita*, a father's sister.

189. **Peculiar forms in "-ess" or "-ss":—**

Abb-ess: Old Fr. *ab-esse*, Late Latin *abbat-issa*, the Fem. form of *abbas, abbat*-em, father.

Duch-ess: Old Fr. *duc-esse, duch-esse*; Lat. *duc*-em, leader.

Mistr-ess: Old Fr. *maister-esse*, Fem. form of *maistre*, master. "Miss" is a contraction of *mistress*.

Marchion-ess: Late Lat. *marchion-issa*, the stem of which is *marchion*-em, prefect of the marches or border.

Murder-er, murder-ess.—The stem of both is *murder*: the former has A.S. suffix *-ere*, which denotes a male agent; the latter the French suffix *-esse*, which denotes a female agent.

Sorcer-er, sorcer-ess.—Parallel to the above. The stem of both is *sorcer*, from Old Fr *sorc-ier*, Lat. *sort-iarius*.

Songster, songstress.—Originally the *-ster* of "song-*ster*" denoted a Feminine. When the Fem. force of *-ster* had been forgotten, the final *er* appeared to signify a male, as in "murder-*er*," "sorcer-*er*." So the *er* was changed to *-ess*, to form a Feminine.

Empr-ess, govern-ess, nur-se.—In these three words the suffix is from Lat. *-icem*, not *-issa* or *-esse*: imperatr-*icem*, gubernatr-*icem*, nutr-*icem*.

Lad, lass.—It used to be said that *lad* and *lass* were from the Welsh *llawd* and *llodes*. But this is now abandoned. No one knows the etymology of either word. It has been suggested that *lad* may mean "one led," Middle English *lad*, pp. of *led-en*, to lead.

190. Other peculiar endings :—

Widow-er, widow.—The older forms were "widuw-*a*" (Masc.) and "widuw-*e*" (Fem.). To make the difference more distinct, the *-a* of the Masc. was displaced by the suffix *-ere* or *-er*, denoting a male agent as in "murder-*er*," "sorcer-*er*."

Wizard, witch.—"Witch" was not long ago of the Common gender: "Your honour is a *witch*."—SCOTT. "Wizard" *witt-ish-ard*, Old Fr. *wisch-ard* or *guisc-art*, sagacious.

Sultan, sultan-a.—The final *a* is an Italian feminine form.

Bride-groom, bride: A.S. *brýd*, a bride. To give this stem a masculine sense A.S. *guma* (male) was added; in modern Eng. the *r* of "groom" is an intruder.

Fox, vixen: A.S. *fox*, a fox. A.S. *fyx-en*, Middle English *fix-en*, *vixen*, a female fox: the final *-en* being a Fem. suffix. The *o* of *fox* was changed to *y* or *i* by the law of Mutation or Umlaut described in § 177.

CHAPTER XXXVI.—ORIGIN AND USE OF CERTAIN ENDINGS.

191.—The following is an alphabetical list or glossary of certain endings, the origin and use of which are considered more especially worthy of attention :—

-ar (1): A.S. *-ere* (person, agent): li-*ar* (for li-*er*).

-ar (2): Lat. *-aris, -arium, -arius*: schol-*ar*, cell-*ar*, vic-*ar*.

-ble: Lat. *plex* (fold): dou-*ble*. Also Lat. *-bilis*: fee-*ble*, dura-*ble*.

-d (1).—Sign of the Past Participle of Weak verbs. In A.S. this was *-t* or *-d*. Cf. Latin "ama-*t*-us," Gr. "Chris-*t*-os," Christ, "anointed."

-d (2).—Sign of the Past tense of Weak verbs. A.S. *-de, -te*, or *-the*. No connection at all with the preceding. But when the final *e* was lost, nothing was left to keep them distinct.

'em, as in "kill *'em*." From A.S. *hem*, "them," with the *h* omitted.

-en (1), Teutonic: A.S. *-an*. Seven uses have been served by this suffix: —(*a*) diminutive, maid-*en*; (*b*) feminine, vix-*en*; (*c*) agent, hav-*en*, that which holds or has; (*d*) plural, ox-*en*; (*e*) passive Part., beat-*en*; (*f*) quality, wood-*en*; (*g*) Trans. verb, dark-*en*, to make dark.

-en (2), Teutonic. Obsolete Infinitive ending, of which we see examples in—

> In peace may pass-*en* Lethe lake.—SPENSER.
> Thinks all is writ he speak-*en* can.—SHAKESPEARE.
> The soil that erst so seemly was to see-*n*.—SACKVILLE.

The Simple or Noun-Infinitive in A.S. had no "to" before it, and ended in *-an*, which in Mid. Eng. became *-en*; the *-en* being eventually dropped. What we now call the Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive always had "to" before it in A.S., and ended in *-anne* or *-enne*; as *tó bind-enne*, "to bind," "for binding" Here *tó* is simply the preposition "to." The ending *-enne* was gradually reduced to *-en* and eventually disappeared like the *-en* of the Simple Infinitive.

Meanwhile the Simple Infinitive, in compensation for the loss of its ending *-en*, took to itself the preposition "to" borrowed from the Gerundial Infinitive. Thenceforth the two Infinitives became undistinguishable in form. But they still differ very widely in sense. See §§ 101-103.

Note.—It is a very great mistake to suppose that the old ending *-enne* or *-en* has reappeared in modern Eng. in the form of *-ing*; and that hence "bind-ing" is a form of Infinitive. A correct explanation of *ing* is given under -ing. See also footnote to p. 106.

-en (3): Latin *-enus*: ali-*enus*, ali-*en*.

-er (1), Teutonic.—Three uses are served by this suffix: -(*a*) A.S. *-ere*, agent: rid-*er*, robb-*er*; (*b*) A.S. *-ira*, *-ra*, Comparative suffix: hott-*er*; (*c*) A.S. *-er*, Frequentative suffix: chatt-*er*.

-er (2), Romanic.—Two uses are served by this suffix:—(1) Lat. *-arius* or *-ator*, agent: arch-*er* (arc-*arius*), lev-*er* (lev-*ator*); (2) French Infinitive *-re*: rend-*er* (Fr. rend-*re*).

-eth: sign of 3rd Sing. Pres. (older form). See below, **s** (*c*).

-ies: Plural ending of Singulars in *y*. An older form of the Singular ending was *-ie*; as *citie, cities*.

-ing (1).—The Suffix used for forming abstract nouns from verb-stems. A.S. *-ing*, or more usually *-ung*. Thus "writ-*ing*" or "writ-*ung*" (writing) was a pure noun; as "the writing of letters." (Very erroneously this *-ing* has been supposed to be an Infinitive ending for **-en** (2). It has even been called the "Flexional Infinitive." This is purely fictitious, devoid of all historical warrant.)

-ing (2).—The Suffix *now* used for forming the Present Participle of verbs: a corruption of A.S. *inde*, and therefore entirely distinct from **-ing** (1). At the end of a word *-ing* is more easily sounded than *-ind*, and so the latter was ousted (1350 A.D.). See § 107.

Note.—What we now call a Gerund is merely a confusion between **-ing** (1) and **-ing** (2). When we leave out the "of" which ought to follow the verbal noun **-ing** (1), and give it all the participial forms, Past and Present, Active and Passive, of **-ing** (2), we call this thing a Gerund. The Gerund began to appear about 1500 A.D.

-ish (1), Teutonic: A.S. *-isc*: pal-*ish*, woman-*ish*, peev-*ish*.

-ish (2), Romanic: Verb-suffix from Lat. *-esc*, Fr. *-iss*: pun-*ish*.

-le (1), Teutonic: two chief uses—(*a*) Diminutive nouns, as freck-*le*; (*b*) Frequentative verbs, as crumb-*le*.

-le or **-el** (2), Romanic: Diminutive nouns: mod-*el*, circ-*le*.

-ling (1): A.S. *-el*, *-ing*, double Dim., as dar-*ling*; (2) A.S. *-linga* or *-lunga*, adverbial suffix, as dark-*ling*.

-ly, Teutonic.—Two purposes served by this suffix:—(*a*) A.S. *lic* (like); for forming *adjectives*; chiefly added to nouns; as god-*ly* (god-like), man-*ly* (man-like): sometimes added to adjectives; as clean-*ly*, good-*ly*; (*b*) A.S. *lic-e* (adverbial form of *lic*); for forming *adverbs*: as tru-*ly*, rough-*ly*. This adverbial suffix is sometimes added to Participles, as knowing-*ly*, learned-*ly*.

-on (1), Teutonic: as wag-*on*, wai-*n*.

-on (2), Romanic: two uses—(*a*) agent, patr-*on*; (*b*) augmentative, milli-*on*.

-on (3), Greek: phenomen-*on*, criteri-*on*.

-or (1), Teutonic.—A.S. *-ere* (male agent): sail-*or*.

-or (2), Romanic: appears in three different characters:—(*a*) Agent, as mot-*or* (Lat. *-or*), emper-*or* (Lat. *-ator*); (*b*) Abstract: err-*or* (Lat. *-or*); (*c*) Lat. compar.: super-i-*or*, exter-i-*or*.

-s: There are three uses served by the inflection *s*. (*a*) Sign of the Plural. In A.S. the form was *-as*, which in Middle English became *-es* (see § 178). Now the *e* is omitted, except after nouns ending in *ch*, *s*, *x*, or *sh*; as march-*es*, glass-*es*, box-*es*, bush-*es*. (*b*) Sign of the Possessive. In A.S. this was *es*; but now the *e* is elided and an apostrophe put in its place. In the Tudor period the *es* is occasionally seen:—

Larger than the monnës sphere.—*Mid. Night's Dream*, ii. 1.

In A.S. certain Feminines did not take this inflection; hence the contrast between *Lord's day* and *Lady day*, *Wednesday* (Woden's day) and *Friday* (Freia's day). (*c*) Sign of the 3rd pers. Sing. Present tense. In A.S. this was *-eth* or *-th*. The form *-eth* is now used only in poetry. The *th* has become *s*, on the principle that one dental (voiceless) has been substituted for another dental that is also voiceless. See § 159, III., and § 171, III.

-ther: A.S. *-ther*. Three uses served by this suffix:—(*a*) Comparative, as in fur-*ther*; (*b*) Agent, as in mo-*ther*; (*c*) Adverbial, as in hi-*ther*.

-ves.—Plural ending of nouns, whose Singular ends in *f* or *-fe*. The letter *f*, when placed between two vowels, as in "wives," is more easily sounded as *v*, and was so sounded in A.S.

-y (1), Teutonic.—Serves three purposes:—(*a*) Dimin., as dadd-*y*; (*b*) Adjective, as might-*y*; (*c*) Verb, as ferr-*y*, the Causal form of "fare"; see § 62*a*, p. 52.

-y (2), Romanic.—Serves two purposes:—(*a*) for *-atus*, as deput-*y*, one who is deputed; jur-*y*, one who is sworn; (*b*) for *-ia*, *-ium*, *-ies*; as famil-*y*, stud-*y*, progen-*y*.

-y (3), Greek: for *-ia*, as energ-*y*.

CHAPTER XXXVII.—ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF CERTAIN WORDS.

192. This chapter consists of an alphabetical list or glossary of certain words in common grammatical use, whose origin and history are more especially worthy of attention.

A (1), **an, any, one, only, once.**—All based upon A.S. *án*, "one." "Any" is A.S. *ǽn-ig*. "One" was so spelt in A.D. 1500 to make it look more like Lat. *un*-us, with which, however, it has no connection in origin. "Only" is A.S. *án-lic* (one-like). "Once" is A.S. *án-es* (of one), Adv. Possessive (§ 149). "A" is merely a contraction of *an*.

A (2).—Disguised preposition (§ 55*a*); as "four *a* (on) day."

Ago: A.S. *á-gán* (agone, agon, ago), Past Part. of "go"; looking back from time present to time gone or past.

Am, is, are.—The verb "to be" is a patchwork of three separate roots, (1) *-es*, (2) *-wes*, (3) *beó*. "Am," "is," "are" are all from the first. "Am" is A.S. *eam* for *es-m*: cf. Latin *su-m*, Gr. *es-mi*. "Is" is A.S. *is* for *es*, *es-t*: cf. Latin *est*, Gr. *es-ti*, German *ist*. "Are" is from *ar-on*, northern dialect, the *s* being changed to *r*.

As, a contraction of *also* (all so), A.S. *eal-swá*.

Aught: A.S. *á-wiht*, one whit.

Aye (1), yes. Apparently a corruption of *yea*, A.S. *geá*.

Aye (2), ever: A.S. *á-wa*; cf. Latin *æv-um*, an age.

Bad, worse, worst.—A patchwork of two roots. "Bad" is from A.S. *bæd-el*, an effeminate man. "Wor-se" is A.S. *wyr-sa*, in which *-sa* is the original Comparative suffix for *-ra*. "Wor-st" is from A.S. *wyrr-est*, Superlative of *wyr*.

Be, been, being.—All these are based on the third root named under **am**. "We *be* twelve brethren."—*Old Testament*. The *n* of "been" is the regular participial ending of Strong verbs.

Breeks, breeches.—These are two forms or spellings of the same plural. This plural is a double one, made up (1) of A.S. *bréc*, plural of *bróc*, as "foot," "foot," by vowel-mutation, see § 177; (2) the superadded plural ending *-s* or *-es*.

But, A.S. *bútan* from *be*, "by," and *útan*, "out."

Can, could.—"Could" (in which the *l* is an intruder, in

imitation of *should, would*) is from A.S. *cu-the*, past tense of the Weak conjugation. Hence "un-couth," literally "unknown," "strange." There is no such word as *can-s* in the Present tense, because *can* was originally the Past tense of a verb, which had lost its Present form even in A.S. and gradually acquired a Present sense.

Dare, durst.—The root is *dars*, hence Past tense *dors-te*, "durst." The Pres. has the form of *dare*, A.S. *dearr*, because the final *s* of *dars* was changed to *r*.

Deer: A.S. *deór*. In A.S. it was of the Neuter gender, and Neuters of a certain class had no Plural inflection. Hence in Eng. too the form of the Plural is the same as that of the Singular.

Do, did: A.S. *dó* (Pres.), *dy-de* (Past). The latter is believed by some to be a *reduplicated* Past, like Latin *pell-o, pe-pul-i*. But this is doubtful. The *-de* of *dy-de* might be merely the regular ending of the Past tense in Weak verbs; see above **-d** (2), p. 221.

Dozen: Old Fr. *dos-aine*, Latin *duo-decim*, two + ten.

During.—Properly the Pres. Part of the verb *dure* or *endure*, to continue. "During this week" was originally "this week during or enduring," absolute construction. By an inversion of the order of the words, "during" has assumed the status of a preposition.

Each: A.S. *ælc*, contraction of *á-ge-lic*, ever like, all alike.

Eight: A.S. *eah-ta*, Lat. *oc-to*. Medial *h* in A.S. was sounded almost as *c* or *k*. In modern Eng. this letter passed into *gh*, which in many words became silent.

Either: A.S. *ége-ther*, contraction of *á-gi-hwæther*, "ever which of two." The negative form is *neither*.

Eleven: A.S. *end-lufon*, Gothic *ain-lif*, where *ain* means "one," and *lif* means "over," "left." So "eleven" literally means "ten and one over."

Enough: A.S. *ge-nóh* or *ge-nóg*, Mid. Eng. *i-nóh* or *e-nógh*.

Ere: A.S. *ǽr*; hence *early* from *ǽr*-lic.

Every: A.S. *æfre*, ever, and *ælc*, each. In Mid. English it was *ever-ich*. The *ch* became eventually silent, and was dropped.

Evil: A.S. *yfel*. No connection with *ill*. See **Ill** below.

Except: Lat. *except*-us, excepted. "God and his son except."—MILTON. Here *except* is a participle, formed direct from *except*-us; and the construction is absolute. By an inversion of the order of the words *except* has become a preposition; cf. **During**.

Far, farther, farthest.—In A.S. the forms were *feor, fyr-ra, fyrr-est.* But the analogy of *fore, fur-ther, fur-thest* was too strong, and so the original forms have been superseded.

First.—This is the regular and oldest Superlative of *fore.* A.S. *fore* (Posit.), *fyrst* (Superlative for *for-ist, for-est*). The *o* became *y* by Mutation or Umlaut, through the effect of the vowel *i* in the suffix *-ist.* See § 177. Cf. *fox, fyxen* in § 190.

Fore, former, foremost: A.S. *fore,* standing in front. The Comp. "former" was not seen before the sixteenth century. It comes from an old Superlative *for-ma,* to which the Comparative suffix *-er* has been added, making *for-m-er.* "Foremost" is also modern, and comes from *for-ma + est*; it has therefore two Superlat. suffixes, *-ma* and *-est.*

Forth, further, furthest.—These are duplicates or doublets of the preceding. But the real Positive is "fore," not "forth." The latter is merely an extension of A.S. *fore.* The real Compar. and Superl. are *fur-ther, fur-thest,* not *furth-er, furth-est.*

Good, better, best.—A patchwork. "Good" is merely a respelling of A.S. *gód,* good. "Better," "best" are from a root *bat,* the base of the verb *batt-en,* to feed or make fat; allied to *boot,* profit.

Have, had: A.S. *habb-an.* In the Past tense *had-de* the radical *b* was dropped.

Her: A.S. *hire,* in which *hi* was the base, and *-re* was a sign of the Possessive and the Dative cases. The A.S. Dative we now call the Objective. Thus in Mod. Eng. (as *hire* in A.S.) *her* stands for two cases, Possessive and Objective.

Hers.—A double Possessive: *he-r-s.* For the Possessive *r* see **Her.** Compare "ours," "yours," "theirs."

Hight: A.S. *héht,* Reduplicated Past tense of *hát-an,* to call. The only *certain* instance of a Reduplicated Past in English. This is clearly reduplicated, since the *h* is repeated. See remarks under **Do.**

Him: A.S. *him.* The *m* (attached to the base *hi*) was in A.S. the regular form of the Dative case; cf. *who-m.* The old Accusative was *hine, hi-ne,* which has survived only in the colloquial form *'un*: "I saw *'un*" = I saw *hine,* the *h* being silent.

His (1): A.S. *his.* The *s* (attached to the base *hi*) is the regular sign of the Possessive.

His (2): as in "Jesus Christ *his* sake." In such phrases (on account of the uncertainty of the letter *h*) *his* has been written

for *is*. The particle *is* or *his* was written as a separate word *after foreign proper names* merely as a sign of the Possessive case, because such names could not be regularly declined.

Hisn.—A form used only by peasants. The *n* in A.S. was a regular sign of the Possessive; cf. *mine, thine*. Hence *hisn* is a double Poss. Cf. *ourn, yourn*, still used by rustics in southern counties.

I: A.S. *ic*, which in Mid. Eng. became *ich*. A Somersetshire peasant in Shakespeare is made to say, "*Ch'ill* (= *ich* will, *I* will) pick your teeth."—*King Lear*, iv. 6.

Ill: Northern dialect *illr*. No connection with "evil."

Is: 3rd pers. Sing. of "am." See **Am.**

It, its.—"It" is from A.S. *hit*, the *h* being omitted: Neuter gender of "he"; cf. Latin "i-*d*." In A.S. *his* was the Possessive form for the Neuter as well as the Masculine. "Its" occurs only once in the Translation of the Bible printed in 1611 (*Lev.* xxv. 5), and only three times in Milton's poetry. In Dryden's time it is thoroughly established. "Its" is written without the apostrophe, because no such form as "it-*es*" ever existed.

Let (1): A.S. *lát-an*, to permit.
Let (2): A.S. *lett-an*, to hinder.
} The two verbs are quite distinct, though now spelt alike.

Little, less, least.—A patchwork from two distinct roots. "Little" is from A.S. *lyt, lyt-el*; the *-el* is Diminutive. The Comp. and Superl. are from the root *læs*, adverb, as shown in the next line.

Less: A.S. *læs-sa* (Comparative of *læs*), in which the *-sa* is the original form of Comp. suffix that preceded *-ra* (*-er*). So *la-s-sa* became simply *less*. "Lesser" is a double Comparative, and modern.

Least: A.S. *læs-st*, Superlative of *læs*.

Many.—Either (*a*) adjective, A.S. *manig*; or (*b*) noun, A.S. *manigu* or *menigu*, multitude. The "of" is usually omitted after (*b*) the noun; as "a great many (of) men," a large number of men.

May, might.—"May" is from A.S. *mæg*, as "day" is from "*dæg*," the *g* being changed to *y*. "Might" is A.S. *meah-te*, Weak Past tense. There is no such form as "may-*s*" in 3rd Sing. Pres. for the reason given under **Can.**

Methinks. See **Think** below.

Million: Lat. *mille*. The *-on* is augmentative: a big thousand, a thousand which is a big number.

Mine: A.S. *mín*. The *n* was a sign of the Possessive case. Hence in the south of England we hear the working classes say *hisn, ourn, yourn*.

More, most.—These have no connection either with "many" or "much," though they have been tacked on to them to furnish Comparative and Superlative forms. "More" is from A.S. *má-ra*. "Most" is from A.S. *má-st*. The base of both is *má*.

Much or **mickle**: A.S. *myc, myc-el*. The *-el* is Diminutive.

Must: A.S. *mós-te*, for *mót-te*. Weak Past tense of the verb *mót-an*. This verb has survived in the almost obsolete phrase, "So *mote* it be," so may it be.

My.—Merely a contraction of A.S. *mín*, mine. Compare Indef. article *a*, which is merely a contraction of A.S. *án*, one. The final *n* has been cut off before consonants merely to make the pronunciation easier.

Near, nearer.—"Near," though now considered a Positive adjective, and used sometimes as a Preposition, was originally a Comparative, A.S. *neáh-ra*, of which "nigh-er" is merely a modern spelling. "Near" has a Comparative force in—

> The *near* in blood, the nearer bloody.—*Macbeth*, ii. 3.

Next.—Merely another spelling of *nigh-est*; A.S. *néh-st*. In A.S. the medial *h* was sounded almost as *c* or *k*. Hence *néh-st* is now spelt as "next." See § 159, III.

Nigh: A.S. *neáh*, or *néh*, as shown already. For A.S. *neáh* or *néh, neáh-ra, néhst*, we have now substituted *near, nearer, nearest*.

Not, naught.—"Not" is merely a more rapid pronunciation of "naught"; since *ŏ* is the short sound of *au*; see § 163, under **O**. "Naught" is a modern spelling of A.S. *náwiht*: see **Aught.**

Notwithstanding.—Properly two words, "not withstanding," not preventing, not standing in the way. "Notwithstanding these facts" was originally "these facts not withstanding"; absolute construction. By a change of order "notwithstanding" has now assumed the status of a preposition. Cf. **During, Except.**

One, only. See **A (1).**

Or.—Contraction of Middle Eng. *outher* or *auther*, A.S. *áhwæther*. "Or" is not a contraction of "other," nor a doublet of "either." In A.S. *áhwæther, á* means "one," and *hwæther* "which of two."

Often: A.S. *oft*; Middle English *ofte*. Final *n* is an intruder.

Other: A.S. *ó-ther*, which at first meant "second." It is a Comparative adjective, and *-ther* is a Comparative suffix. Cf. Latin *al-ter*; and see **Far, Forth.**

Ought: A.S. *áh-te*, he owed. "You *ought* him a thousand pound."—SHAKESPEARE, 1 *Henry II.* iii. 3.

Our, ours: A.S. *úre*, *úres*. The *r* is one sign of the Possessive, and the *s* is another. So *ours* is a double Possessive.

Out, utter, uttermost: A.S. *úte* or *útan*, *útor*, *útema* or *útemest*. "Uttermost" is merely a respelling or rather misspelling of *útemest*.

Own: A.S. *ágen*, possessed or owned. Strong form of Past Part.

Past.—A participle, originally absolute, which by change of position became a preposition. "Half *past* four" = half, four (having) passed. Compare **Except, During, Notwithstanding.**

Pending.—Similar to the above. Pending notice = notice pending, expected but not yet come.

Prithee: for "I *pray thee*."

Quoth: A.S. *cwæth*, Strong Past of A.S. *cweth-an*, to say.

Rather.—Comparative of *rathe*, "early." A.S. *hræth*, quick.

Save.—An adjective (Lat. *salvus*, Fr. *sauf*) which through change of position has become a preposition: "all *save* one" = all, one being safe or reserved. See above, **Pending, During,** etc.

Score.—Used in English for either Sing. or Plur. In A.S. *scor-a* was Plural only. Original meaning "notch" cut in a stick called *tally*.

> Our forefathers had no other books but the *score* and the *tally*.
> SHAKESPEARE, 2 *Henry VI.* iv. 7.

Second: Lat. *secund-us*. It superseded A.S. *óther*, which at first meant "second," but eventually acquired a different sense.

Self: A.S. *self* or *silf*, signifying "same," "identical"; as in *self-same*. Observe then that in A.S. *self* was an *adjective*, not a noun. As an adjective it was put after the pronoun in the same number and case. Hence we find such forms as *ic selfa* (Nom.), *min selfes* (Poss.), *mé selfum* (Dative), *mec selfne* (Acc.). In the Mod. period *self* acquired the status of a noun, with a plural *selves*, like "shelf, shelves." So we get the forms *myself, thyself,*

herself, ourselves, yourselves, where the noun "self," or "selves" is qualified by a Possessive pronoun. In *himself* the word "self" is still an adjective. In *themselves* there is a confusion between "self" as noun and "self" as adjective. In strict grammar it should be either *themself* or *theirselves.* The latter is common among peasants in the southern counties of England.

Shall, should: A.S. *sceal* or *scal* (Pres.), *scol-de* (Past). There is no such form as *shall-s,* because *shall* belongs to the same class of irregular verb as **can, may.** On *sc* changed to *sh* see p. 196, and observe the change of *scó* to *shoe.*

She.—Not from the A.S. *sō,* as has been asserted, but from the Midland *scá,* which in modern English has been regularly respelt as "she." (*Scá* occurs in the last two chapters of the *Old English Chronicle* that were written in the Mercian or Midland dialect.) For change of *sc* to *sh* see p. 196, as before.

Sheep: A.S. *sceáp* or *scép.* Plural the same as Singular, for the same reason as that stated under **Deer.** See p. 196, as before.

Since.—So spelt for *sins*; contraction of Mid. Eng. *sithens* (now almost obsolete), in which the final *s* is the Possessive adverbial suffix: cf. *alway-s.* See § 149. "Sithen" is from A.S. *síth thám,* after that.

Some: A.S. *sum.*

Such: A.S. *swylc,* from *swá* (so) and *líc* (like). Hence the modern phrase "suchlike" is pleonastic.

Swine: A.S. *swín,* pig. Plural the same as Singular for the reason stated under **Deer.**

Than, then: A.S. *thænne* or *thonne.* No distinction was made between *than* and *then* before the modern period. In Shakespeare we have *than* in the sense of "then" rhyming with "began"—

> And their ranks began
> To break upon the galled shore and *than*
> Retire again.—*Rape of Lucrece.*

That: A.S. *thæt, tha-t.* The *t* is a mark of the Neuter: cf. i-*t,* Lat. i-*d,* illu-*d,* quo-*d.*

The (1), Def. Article: A.S. *the*; used in A.S. not for the Def. Article, but for an indeclinable Relative. In A.S. the Def. Article in the Nom. Case was *sé* (Masc.), *seó* (Fem.), and *thæt* (Neuter).

The (2), Adverb used with Comparatives: A.S. *thý,* Instrumental Case of the Demonstrative pronoun. See § 40 (*b*).

Their, theirs: Northern dialect *their-ra*. The *s* is a sign of the Possessive, and *-ra* was another such sign. So "theirs" is a double Possessive.

Them: A.S. *thám*, *thá-m*, Dative case: cf. hi-*m*, who-*m*.

These, those: A.S. *thás*, *thás*. No difference between them in A.S. Both were plurals of the same Singular. The distinction is modern.

They: Northern dialect *their*, *thei*.

Thine, thy: A.S. *thín*, in which *n* is a sign of the Possessive. "Thy" is merely a contraction of "thine." See remarks under **My, mine**.

Think (1): A.S. *thenc-an*, to think or reflect.

Think (2), in "me-thinks": A.S. *thync-an*, to seem. See § 85.

This: A.S. *thes* (Masc.), *theós* (Fem.), *this* (Neuter).

To wit: A.S. *tó wit-enne*, "for knowing"; Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive. On the loss of *-enne* see **-en** (2), p. 221.

Twelve: A.S. *twá-lif*, *i.e.* ten and *two* (twá) *left* (lif), or "two over." Compare the etymology of **Eleven**.

Unless.—Formerly written "*on lesse* that," *i.e.* on a less supposition than, if not. Here *un* stands for the prep. *on*. For the origin of "less" see **Less**.

Was, wast, were.—All these are based on the root *wes*, one of the three roots out of which the verb "to be" is conjugated (see **Am**). "Was" is A.S. *wæs*. "Were" is A.S. *wær-on*, in which an *r* has been substituted for *s*, as in *ar-t* for *as-t*.

What: A.S. *hwæt*, Neuter of *hwá*. *Hwæ-t*; cf. Lat. quo-*d*.

Which: A.S. *hwilc*, short for *hwí líc*, why like.

Who, whose, whom: A.S. *hwá*, *hwæ-s* (Poss.), *hwæ-m* (Dative).

Whole.—An ill-spelt doublet of *hale*, A.S. *hál*, sound.

Why: A.S. *hwí*, Instrumental case of *hwá*.

Will, would.—"Would" is A.S. *wol-de*, where *-de* is the correct regular ending of the Past tense in the Weak conjugation. In *won't* we have *wol not*, *wol* being another form of the root: cf. Latin *vol*-o, *vol*-untary. *Will* is from A.S. *will*-an.

Wont (accustomed): A.S. *wun-od*, pp. of A.S. *wun-ian*, to remain. *Wont-ed* = *won-d-ed*, with two participial endings.

Worse. See **Bad**.

Worth, as in "Woe *worth* the day," *i.e.* Woe befall the day. "Worth" is all that remains of A.S. *weorth-an*, to become, once very widely used.

Wot, wist: A.S. *wát* (Pres. tense), *wis-te* (Past tense). The root of the verb is *wit*, which in the Past is changed to *wis*. The only form of this verb that is now much used is the Infin. "to wit."

Yclept: A.S. *ge-clipod*, called. The *ge* prefix had become *y*.

You, your, yours: A.S. *eów, eów-er, eów-r-es*. The last is a double Possessive; cf. *ou-r-s, thei-r-s*.

Exercise 44.

(*a*) 1. Write short notes on the forms—*kine, riches, children*. 2. Why is the parsing of words in the English of to-day more difficult than in the older forms of the language? 3. What is case? What case-forms are found in English? Give two examples of each. 4. State what you know about the history of the changes that have taken place in the inflection of (*a*) the Present Participle, (*b*) the Past Participle, (*c*) the Infinitive mood in English. Parse and account for the form *do* in "I can *do* it." 5. Give instances of obsolete ways of forming the plural of nouns in English. How was it that they became obsolete? 6. Mention three nouns of which the plural form has a different meaning from that of the singular. 7. Write short notes on the words—*vixen, drake, nearer*. 8. Show that our language possesses inflections which mark (1) gender, (2) number. 9. Give examples of English PastParticiples which are formed by obsolete processes. Comment on the forms of the Past Participles—*done, drunk, beaten, made, wrought, bereft*. 10. Write notes on the history of *myself, his, hers, every, which*; and state the conditions under which the last two are now used. 11. Mention four Common nouns which have been derived from names of persons or places. 12. Give the usual adverbial suffix by which adjectives are turned into adverbs (*a*) in Old English, (*b*) at the present time. Explain by notes on the words—*seldom, hither, once, asleep, to-morrow*—in what other ways adverbs are made. 13. Enumerate with examples the several grammatical uses served by the inflection *-s*. Write notes on the history of any two of them. 14. Name the chief Indefinite and Distributive adjectives; and in the case of any three of them point out what changes they have undergone in meaning and form. 15. Write down examples of all the suffixes that give a negative or contrary meaning to a word. 16. What is a diphthong? From the following words

make a list of those which contain true diphthongs :—*aunt, build, buoy, eye, few, fought, gaol, powder, seat, soul, suit.* 17. Explain how the function of a Relative pronoun in a sentence differs from that of a Personal pronoun. State what you know about the history of the Relative pronouns *what* and *which*, and parse *what* in the sentences "I am what I am," and "I did not repeat what you said." 18. State and illustrate the uses of the verb *to be*. Comment on the history of the forms *am, is, are, was.* 19. Give examples of the employment of the suffix *-en* in the formation of Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs, and state the force of the suffix in each case. (*Cambridge, Junior and Senior.*)

(*b*) 1. Note anything remarkable in the formation of the following words :—*any, could, first, every, naught, next, least, ought, prithee, methinks.* 2. Account for the selection of the suffix which is in common use for forming the plural of English nouns. 3. Describe the several ways of indicating gender in English nouns. Explain the origin of the following forms :—*executrix, duchess, sir, woman, drake, widower, daughter.* 4. Classify conjunctions according to (*a*) their use, (*b*) their origin. Give an example of each class. 5. Explain with examples the terms—Root, Stem, Primary Derivative, Secondary Derivative. 6. Give the derivation of *eleven* and *twelve*. 7. Give the rules for the division of words into syllables. Divide, stating the reason in each case—*tablet, table, counter* (noun), *counteract.* 8. "Pronouns have more traces of old forms than other parts of speech." Briefly justify this statement, and give examples. 9. What was the origin of the verbals in *-ing* ? In what ways are they used ? (*Oxford, Junior and Senior.*)

(*c*) 1. Account for the contradictory forms—*Lord's day* and *Lady-day* ; *Wednesday* and *Friday.* 2. Write the plurals of *alkali, shelf, attorney, Percy, alms, gallows, man-servant, logic, trout, cloth* ; and the plurals of any six foreign words in common use. 3. State the different ways of forming adverbs in English. 4. State what you know about the forms—*worse, further, better, next,* and *uttermost.* 5. Annotate the following words :—*drake, bridegroom, gander, bachelor, spider.* 6. What is meant by the plural of a noun ? Write the plurals of *memorandum, journey, folio, sow, cow, axis, salmon, cloth, James, Miss Williams.* 7. Write down four nouns which have double plurals, and point out the difference of meaning in the two forms. 8. State what

you know about the following words :—*filly, goose, lady, wizard, sir.* 9. Comment on any peculiarities that exist in the following words :—*vixen, Thursday, Friday, other, worst, next, rather, nethermost.* 10. Give the derivation and meaning of each of the following words :—*whilom, methinks, egotism, pea, perchance, forgive, untoward.* 11. Comment upon any peculiarities that exist in the following words :—*pease, riches, Lady-day, least, farthing, needs, darkling.* 12. Write the plurals of *ox, potato, chimney, Henry, penny, die, dye, lord-lieutenant, aide-de-camp, beau, portmanteau, brother.* (*Preceptors', Second and First Class.*)

(*d*) 1. Give the derivations of *whilom, why, than, neutralise, whole.* 2. State what you know about the words—*worse, less, rather, midmost, children.* 3. Give the rule for the formation of the plural of nouns ending in *y.* Write the plurals of *joy, journey, difficulty, colloquy.* Also of *chief, staff, quarto, die, cloth.* 4. Quote four nouns which in appearance are plural, but are in reality singular, and give the derivation of each. 5. Account for the omission of *w* in the pronunciation of *whole.* 6. Account for the doubled consonant in—accommodate, assessor, corroborate, innate, innocuous, intelligent, pellucid, hotter, witty. 7. What is notable in the spelling or formation of *could, imbecility, opaque, connection, secrecy, coloneley* ? 8. Point out the force of the prefix in *un*dismayed, *mis*lay, *be*hind, *for*give, *with*stand, *pre*fix, *extra*vagant, *post*pone, *super*scription, *an*archy, *epi*gram, *peri*meter. (*Preceptors', Second and First Class.*)

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Note.—For alphabetical lists showing the origin and use of important endings and important words, see Chapters XXXVI. and XXXVII.

THE END

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